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SHAHJAHANPUR



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KAILASH NARAIN PANDE

State Editor

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1. The first part of the document is a header section containing the title and author information. The title is "The Role of the State in the Development of the Economy" and the author is "John Doe".

2. The second part of the document is the abstract, which summarizes the main findings of the study. It states that the study examines the role of the state in the development of the economy, focusing on the impact of government intervention on economic growth and development.

3. The third part of the document is the introduction, which provides a brief overview of the research and its significance. It highlights the importance of understanding the role of the state in the economy and the need for further research in this area.

4. The fourth part of the document is the literature review, which discusses the existing research on the topic. It identifies the key theories and findings that have shaped the current understanding of the role of the state in the economy.

5. The fifth part of the document is the methodology, which describes the research methods used in the study. It outlines the data sources, the analytical techniques, and the steps taken to ensure the reliability and validity of the findings.

6. The sixth part of the document is the results and discussion, which presents the findings of the study and discusses their implications. It compares the results with the existing literature and provides a critical analysis of the findings.

7. The seventh part of the document is the conclusion, which summarizes the main findings and provides recommendations for future research. It emphasizes the need for further exploration of the role of the state in the economy and the importance of policy implications.

8. The eighth part of the document is the references, which lists the sources used in the study. It includes a comprehensive list of academic papers, books, and other relevant sources.

9. The ninth part of the document is the appendix, which contains additional information related to the study. It includes data tables, figures, and other supplementary materials.

10. The tenth part of the document is the index, which provides a quick reference to the various sections of the document. It lists the page numbers for each section, making it easy for readers to locate specific information.



PREFACE

This is the fifty-first in the series of the revised district gazetteers of the State which are being published under the scheme sponsored by the Government of India. The first official document of this type relating to the area covered by the district of Shahjahanpur was published in 1879 and was known as the *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India*, Part I, Vol. V, Rohilkhand Division, a work prepared by E. T. Atkinson and H. C. Conybeare, followed in 1883 by F. H. Fisher's *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India*, Part I, Vol. IX. In 1910 was published H. R. Nevill's *Shahjahanpur : A Gazetteer*, being Volume XVII of the *District Gazetteers of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh*, which was supplemented by Volumes B, C and D in 1914, 1928 and 1934, respectively. The different sources utilized in the preparation of the present gazetteer have been indicated in the bibliography which appears at the end of the book. The statistics used in the gazetteer are based on the census data of 1961 and 1971 in general.

The work on the Shahjahanpur District Gazetteer was started and followed up under the able guidance and supervision of my predecessors. However, the final shape could be given to this Gazetteer only recently. In this task I was ably assisted by the Editors and Compilation Officers of my department, without whose help it could not have been possible for me to bring out this volume to the present shape.

I shall like to place on record my sincere thanks to the Chairman and members of the Advisory Board of the District Gazetteers, Uttar Pradesh, for going through the drafts of the Chapters and to all those officials and non-officials, who have helped me in bringing out this volume.

LUCKNOW :

K. N. PANDE

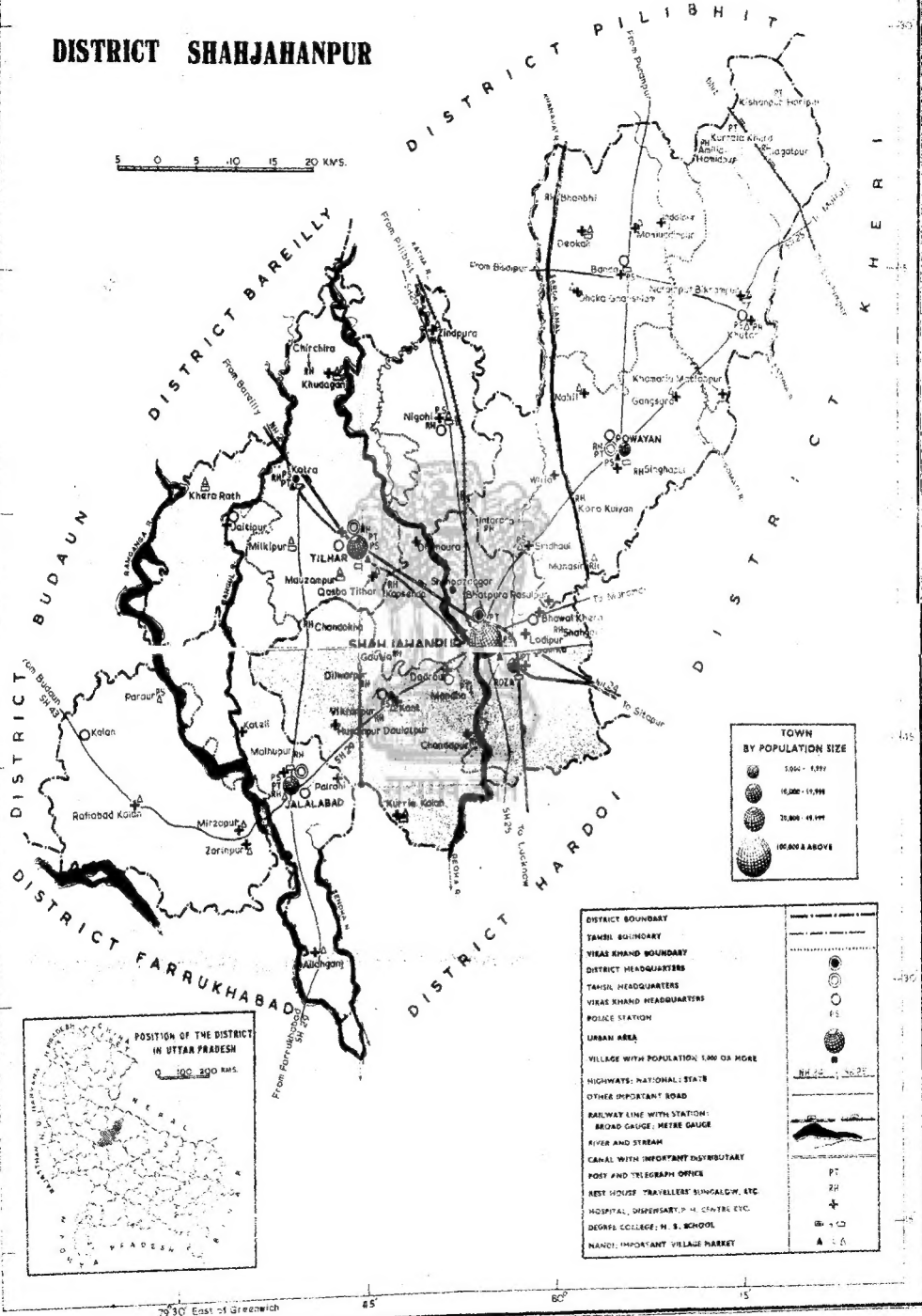
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DISTRICT SHAHJAHANPUR

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Origin of Name of District

The district is named after its headquarters town Shahjahanpur, which was founded during the reign of Shah Jahan by Diler Khan, who defeated the Rajputs at Chingaur. In recognition of his success the emperor bestowed 14 villages on Diler Khan and ordered him to build a fort at Noner Khera, a place near the junction of the Garra and the Khanaut where, the tradition states, an old Gujar stronghold existed in former days. The town which grew up around the fort was called Shahjahanpur after the name of the emperor Shah Jahan.

LOCATION, BOUNDARIES, AREA AND POPULATION

Location and Boundaries

The district lies in Lat. 27°35' and 28° 29' N. and Long. 79° 37' and 80° 23' E. It is bounded on the north by district Pilibhit, on the east by district Kheri, on the south by districts Hardoi and Farrukhabad and on the west by districts Budaun and Bareilly.

Area

According to the central statistical organisation the area of the district in 1971 was 4,581 sq. km. and stood 33rd in the State. The statistics maintained by the board of revenue, however, gave the area for the same year as 4,598.6 sq. km. The area of the district is subject to variation from year to year on account of changes in the midstream and the courses of rivers on the boundary.

Population

According to the census of 1971 the population of the district was 12,86,104 (females 5,70,575), the rural population being 10,90,082 (females 4,79,869), and the urban population being 1,96,022 (females 90,706). The district stood 40th in the State in respect of population.

HISTORY OF DISTRICT AS ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT

At the time of the cession to the British, the tract comprising the present district was included in district Bareilly. In 1813-14

a separate district of Shahjahanpur was formed after including in it the parganas of Shahjahanpur, Mihrabad, Tilhar, Nigohi, Jalalpur, Khara Bajhera, Miranpur Katra, Baragaon, Powayan, Khutar, Maraori, Bangaon, Amritpur, Khakhatmau, Paramnagar, Khairigarh and Parampur Sabna. Originally the district comprised all the land between the Ganga and the Ramganga as far as the Avadh border. In 1829 the parganas of Amritpur, Bangaon, Khakhatmau and Paramnagar were transferred to Farrukhabad. In 1842 Bangaon was, however, restored and amalgamated with Mihrabad to form tahsil Jalalabad. In 1841-42 Maraori was given back to Bareilly. In 1865 Palia was included in district Kheri and Parampur Sabna in district Bareilly.

After the cession pargana Shahjahanpur was made a single tahsil, but in 1869 the area was split up into the parganas of Shahjahanpur, Jaunpur and Kant. Jalalabad comprised the single pargana of that name, made up of the two old parganas of Mihrabad and Bangaon. Tahsil Powayan comprising parganas Powayan, Baragaon and Khutar assumed its present shape in 1871. The Tilhar tahsil, comprising parganas Tilhar, Nigohi, Jalalpur, Katra and Khara Bajhera was formed in 1850, when three former tahsils were amalgamated. These were Tilhar consisting of parganas Tilhar and Nigohi; Khara Bajhera made up of the single pargana of that name and Jalalpur including Jalalpur, Katra and Maraori. At the same time several changes were made in the boundaries of the parganas many transfers being necessary to effect a rectification in the case of Faridpur, Jalalpur and Katra, which had been inextricably interlaced, the last losing nearly half its area, while great reduction had been made in earlier years, to the benefit of Khara Bajhera. The latter also received considerable additions from Salempur and Budaun, with the object of making the Ramganga the boundary of the district.

Subdivisions, Tahsils and Thanas

The district is divided into four subdivisions, Powayan, Tilhar, Shahjahanpur and Jalalabad, each comprising a single tahsil of the same name.

Powayan, the largest tahsil of the district, comprises the extensive block of country formed by the parganas of Baragaon, Powayan and Khutar. It is bounded on the south-west by tahsils Tilhar and Shahjahanpur on the south and east by district Kheri and on the north and west by district Pilibhit. Its area is 1,553 sq. km. and the

population 2,96,488 (females 1,32,545), the rural population being 2,87,555 (females 1,28,482) and the urban 8,933 (females 4,063). There are 709 inhabited and 101 uninhabited villages and the town of Powayan in the tahsil.

Shahjahanpur, the south-eastern tahsil of the district, comprises the three parganas of Shahjahanpur, Kant and Jamaur. The tahsil is bounded on the north by tahsil Powayan and Tilhar, on the west by tahsil Jalalabad, on the south by district Hardoi and on the east by the Sukheta which separates it from district Kheri. Its area is 1,022.3 sq. km. and the population 4,11,947 (females 1,84,584), the rural population being 2,62,796 (females 1,15,759) and the urban 1,49,151 (females 68,825). There are 469 inhabited and 80 uninhabited villages and the town of Shahjahanpur in the tahsil.

Tilhar is the north-western tahsil of the district, and comprises the parganas of Tilhar, Nigohi, Jalalpur, Katra and Khera Bajhera. It is bounded on the north by the district of Pilibhit, on the east by tahsil Powayan, on the south by tahsils Shahjahanpur and Jalalabad, on the west by the district of Budaun and on the north-west by the district of Bareilly. Its area is 1,072.3 sq. km. and the population 3,21,913 (females 1,42,442), the rural population is 2,95,076 (females 1,29,804) and the urban population is 26,837 (females 12,638). There are 567 inhabited and 82 uninhabited villages and the town of Tilhar in this tahsil.

Tahsil Jalalabad, comprising the single pargana of the same name, occupies the south-western portion of the district and is bounded on the north by tahsil Tilhar, on the east by tahsil Shahjahanpur and the district of Hardoi, on the south by the district of Farrukhabad and on the west by the district of Budaun. It has an area 950.5 sq. km. and the population of 2,55,756 (females 1,11,004), the rural population being 2,44,655 (females 1,05,824) and the urban 11,101 (females 5,180). There are 372 inhabited, 75 uninhabited villages and the town of Jalalabad in the tahsil.

Thanas—For police administration the district is divided into five circles, namely, the city, Jalalabad, Tilhar, Powayan and Kant. The city circle contains the thanas of Kotwali, Sehraiman (south) and Sadar Bazar. The Jalalabad, Kalan, Mirzapur and Parau police-stations are included in the Jalalabad police circle. The police-stations of Tilhar, Katra, Khudaganj and Jaitipur are included in the Tilhar police-circle. There are four police-stations Powayan, Banda,

Khutar and Schraman (north) in Powayan police-circle, and the police-stations of Kant, Sindhauli and Nigohi in Kant police-circle.

TOPOGRAPHY

The bulk of the district resembles the upland plains of the Ganga valley. The general level is broken only by the valleys of the numerous streams and watercourses, which in most cases flow in a south-easterly direction, indicating the ordinary slope of the country. It is not easy to determine the exact extent of this slope from the recorded heights, for, though there is a fair number of permanent stations of the survey department, they are usually placed on eminences well above the surrounding tracts. Thus the pillar at Kusrak is 184.71 m. above sea-level at its base whereas the bench mark at Katra, less than 3 km. distant is only about 158.80 m. Other stations are Sultanpur, 177.08 m. Piparia, 174.35 m, in the north of tahsil Powayan; Karai 170.38 m. near Khutar; Dhaka 151.49 m. near Jalalabad, and Goendi, 150.26 m. in the south-west corner. The maximum height of the ground level is apparently 166.11 m. on the north-west border, not far from Khudaganj, and about the same in the north of Powayan, dropping to 156.05 m. at Tilhar, 154.53 m. at Shahjahanpur and to some 146.30 m. on the Hardoi boundary. On these figures we obtain an average slope of 0.34 m. to the kilometre, disregarding the drop to the lower levels of the rice lands and the river valleys.

Broadly speaking the district may be divided into two main natural divisions, the *bangar* or the upland and *tarai* or the lowland, the latter being also known as *khadar* (or *Khadir*) a term ordinarily applied to the low valley of the Ganga. The *bangar* is the old and stable alluvium and consists of a level plain at a considerable elevation above the rivers, while the low valleys which have been formed by a long process of erosion, the width depending on both the velocity of the current and the consistency of the soil, constitute the *khadar*. The rivers flowing through the district play an important role in fashioning the topography of the district. They flow in their well-marked valleys which are more or less subject to inundation every year, and are flanked on either side by high banks raised in the first instance by the deposits of silt brought down in floods and afterwards by the action of the wind, whereby the sand is blown from the river beds during the hot weather, being arrested on the high bank and consoli-

dated by vegetation. From the sandy crest of the bank, the land slopes gently towards the central plain till it rises again towards the bank of the next river, while in the middle there is usually a shallow depression, marked as a rule by subsidiary drainage lines or more strings of pools. These general characteristics may be seen everywhere, although local conditions produce slight modifications, certain features being accentuated at the cost of the rest. Taking into consideration all these factors the district may be divided into five natural divisions, the forest belt, the Gomati tract, the *bangar*, the Ramganga *khadar* and the *bankati*.

Forest Belt—This tract bears a strong resemblance to the sub-montane *tarai* of the Pilibhit and Naini Tal districts, of which it is in fact a southerly continuation in tahsil Powayan. There is an abundance of forest and waste, with a fertile soil, a high water level, unhealthy climate and sparse population. However, a considerable portion of this tract has been reclaimed for cultivation in the last three or four decades.

Gomati Tract—This tract, a narrow strip along the Gomati, is actually a continuation of the *tarai* forest tract which terminates on the west and south-west in the upland or the *bangar* tract roughly bounded by the Jhukna and the right high bank of the Gomati. The population is sparse and cultivation scanty. The tract has improved considerably in recent years.

Bangar—This tract comprises the greater part of the district. It consists of a plain of light though moderate loam varied by heavy clay in the depressions and light sandy soil on the river banks and higher levels.

Khadar—The *bangar* finally terminates in the Ramganga basin and the Ganga *khadar*. The former includes about half of pargana Khara Bajhera and a strip, some 8 km. in width in pargana Jalalabad. Here the Ramganga winds in a constantly changing course, forming and reforming land with great rapidity. Consequently, the soil varies widely, deposits of pure sand alternating with stretches of the richest loam silt, the result depending mainly on the character of the annual floods. There is, however, a considerable area which is beyond the reach of ordinary inundations and this is of great value and fertility, producing large quantities of wheat and other valuable crops. A similar strip of *tarai* is to be found along the Ganga in the south-western part of tahsil Jalalabad. Here the good land

is very restricted in extent, the actual bed of the river being for the most part poor and sandy, covered in places with high grass and brush-wood, extending inland for about 5 km. from the actual channel.

Bankati—This tract occupies the western and the largest portion of pargana Jalalabad. The name denotes the cleared forest lands, and traces of its former appearance are to be seen in the numerous scattered patches of dhak jungle. The *bankati* is a lowlying expanse of hard clay soil, in places rendered sterile by *usar* and the saline efflorescences known as *reh*, especially in the vicinity of the Sot. Rice is the main crop, and irrigation is of vital importance. During the rains almost the whole of the *bankati* tract is under water, a fact which accounts for the unhealthiness of the climate. The floods are, however, beneficial in their action and it is the drought which is dreaded.

RIVER SYSTEMS AND WATER RESOURCES

Rivers

All the rivers of the district ultimately discharge their waters into the Ganga, and are included in the main Gangetic system, but for practical purposes there are three subsidiary systems, those of the Gomati, the Garra and the Ranganga, apart from the Ul which is an affluent of the Ghaghara.

Ul—The river is of great antiquity and possibly represents an abandoned channel of the Sarda. In this part of its course the bed is on a much higher level than that of the Sarda. It is said to derive its name from *ul*, the term applied locally to malarial fever. The Ul has its origin in the low ground in the extreme south-east corner of the district of Pilibhit and for some distance forms the boundary between pargana Khutar and the district of Kheri. Subsequently it traverses the district of Kheri from west to east eventually falling into the Chauka. In this part of its course, however, it scarcely deserves the name of the river. While in its lower reaches it attains fair dimensions. It is here, during the cold weather at all events, nothing more than a depression in the centre of a wide opening in the forest.

Gomati System

Gomati—The river has its source in the marshy tract near Mainakot in tahsil Purankot in the district of Pilibhit. When it enters this district on the northern border of tahsil Powayan it has a well-defined bed, though the current is sluggish and the channel is almost

dry for half of the year. Running southwards, it separates pargana Khutar from pargana Powayan and goes to the district of Kheri in the extreme south-eastern corner of pargana Powayan. In its lower reaches Gomati has considerable current and flows in a wide valley with high sandy plains on either bank. The Gomati has several tributaries, namely, the Kathna, the Jhukna and the Bhainsi.

Tributaries of Gomati

Kathna—This stream, a small watercourse, and the easternmost tributary of the Gomati, rises in a large tank near Dhanega in pargana Khutar. It flows in a south-easterly direction through the pargana to meet the Kheri boundary, which it follows for about 12 km. and then leaves the district.

Jhukna—This stream has its source near Anantpur in tahsil Puranpur and enters this district in the north-west of pargana Khutar. It flows in a southerly direction and after a course of some 5 km. is joined by a similar stream named Barhawa or Barua. The Jhukna is a small stream with high sandy banks. It joins the Gomati at Haripur.

Bhainsi—It is a small stream some 32 km. in length and is also known as the Bhainsahi. It rises near Dookali and flows southward past Banda, for some distance following the direction of the Puranpur road. It then turns to the south-east and joins the Gomati at Sheopuri, some 11 km. east of Powayan.

Garra System

Garra—It rises in the hills of Kumaon and is at first known as the Nandhaur. After entering the *bhabar* at Chorgallia in district Naini Tal it is called the Dooha, a name which it retains throughout its course in the district of Pilibhit, while in this district it is usually called the Garra. It enters the district in the extreme north of tahsil Tilhar. The river flows tortuously southward past Khudaganj and the town of Shahjahanpur and after reaching the southern border of the district it separates the district of Hardoi from this district for some distance eventually joining the Ramganga just above the confluence of that river with the Ganga. The Garra is a large river with a wide bed. Occasionally it is in heavy floods, and its action is very destructive, the stream cutting away and throwing up land along the greater part of its course. When such change is sudden the damage is considerable, but when the erosion is gradual the movement

is of little importance, for the abandoned bed is generally covered with an alluvial deposit of high fertility. The Garra river has also its own several tributaries, namely, the Khanaut, the Sukheta, the Katna, the Kaimua, the Garai and the Bhaksi.

Tributaries of Garra

Khanaut—The river, which is the largest tributary of the Garra, rises in the forest in the Pilibhit district and flows southwards for some 40 km., forming the boundary between the district and the district of Pilibhit. It then runs through the south-western portion of tahsil Powayan and north-eastern portion of tahsil Shahjahanpur joining the Garra close to the town of Shahjahanpur on the east. The river flows in a wide but well-defined valley, the whole of which is submerged in heavy floods, which are, however, of somewhat rare occurrence and of short duration. Within this valley the channel winds about in an incessant series of loops and bends, the ordinary bed being deep and narrow, while the current is generally sluggish.

The Khanaut receives few tributaries of any size. On the left bank it is fed by the Jhabaria, a small stream which has its origin in the large lake near Nahil in tahsil Powayan and joins the river at Nagaria Buzurg. On the right are the Sakaria, which rises in Bisalpur in the district of Pilibhit and flows through the south-west of tahsil Powayan to fall into the Khanaut at Manwabari, and the Barah, which has its source in the lake above Dhakia Tiwari in tahsil Tilhar and after traversing the extreme west of Baragaon effects its junction at Magdapur.

Sukheta—The eastern most tributary of the Garra is the Sukheta, which originates in the large lake on the borders of parganas Powayan and Baragaon, and flows in a south-easterly direction. For about 20 km. it separates this district from the district of Kheri and then enters Hardoi, where it falls into the Garra after a further course of some 48 km. At first it is a mere drainage line, in which frequent obstructions have resulted in the formation of extensive swamps ; but lower down the channel is deep and well-defined.

Katna—It is an important river of the district of Pilibhit and is known in its upper reaches as the Mala. Shortly after entering this district on the northern border it is joined by the Papatua, a fair-sized stream which, like the Katna, is extensively used for irrigation purposes. From the confluence the river flows southwards to join the

Garra near Dhakia Ragha in tahsil Tilhar. The Katna is regularly dammed at Barah, and its water is utilized for irrigating the hard clay soil in the neighbourhood.

Kaimua—The river rises in the south-east of Bisalpur in the district of Pilibhit and flows through that pargana for some 25 km. in a south-westerly direction past the village of Nigohi in tahsil Tilhar, ultimately joining the Garra at Baraincha. It is joined in the upper part of its course by several small channels, notably the Khandena or Khandni, which rises near Marauri in Bisalpur in the district of Pilibhit and for some distance follows the district boundary. Along the Khandni the land is dry and sandy, but the Kaimua flows through the centre of the clay tract near Nigohi in tahsil Tilhar, and though only a small stream, it is of immense value for irrigation purposes, numerous dams being made with the object of holding up the water.

Garai—It rises in a lake some 5 km. south of Khudaganj in tahsil Tilhar and runs southward through tahsils Tilhar and Shahjahanpur to join the Garra in the district of Hardoi. As far as Kant it is a mere ditch, dry for the greater part of the year, but further south, after its junction with the Bhaksi, its channel becomes deeper and wider, and the flow is perennial, so that the stream can be utilised for irrigation purposes. The Garai has a well-marked valley, lying at a considerable depth below the level of the *bhur* upland on the west, and of fair fertility.

Bhaksi—It is an ill-defined watercourse which appears to have its origin near Tilhar, whence the flood water makes its way across the tract to the south-east, one outlet being into the Garra nearly opposite the town of Shahjahanpur, while a second one breaks southwards past the village of Jamaur to join the Garai at Mutiasa.

Ramganga System

Ramganga—It is a big river, having its origin in the lofty heights of the Himalayas and after emerging from the hills, traverses Bijnor, Moradabad, Rampur, Bareilly and Budaun districts. For some 20 km. it forms the boundary between this district and the Budaun district and then makes its way through tahsil Jalalabad to join the Ganga in the district of Farrukhabad. It has several tributaries, the chief ones being the Sot and the Bahgul.

Tributaries of Ramganga

Sot—The river, also known by the historic name of Yar-i-Wafadar or 'Faithful friend', bestowed on it by Muhammad Shah in his campaign against Ali Muhammad Khan and the Rohillas, rises in the district of Moradabad and after traversing the uplands of the district of Budaun in a deep channel passes into the *khadar* of the Ganga. There it changes its nature, becoming a sluggish stream with several channels, largely used for irrigation purposes, a function which it also performs in this district. It enters tahsil Jalalabad on the west in two branches which unite near Pilua and thence keeps parallel to the Ganga through *bankati* till it passes into the district of Farrukhabad, a short distance below Pirhipur Dhai in this district. At Lachhmanpur it is joined by the Arit, a small stream which flows southwards from the district of Budaun past Barah, and lower down it unites with three other small watercourses, the combined stream being known as the Bukra Khar.

Bahgul—The river, also known as East Bahgul in its upper course is an important stream whose valley generally marks the western edge of the uplands. Rising in the district of Naini Tal, it traverses the eastern half of the district of Bareilly and first touches this district some 8 km. west of Khudaganj near Hasanpur. Here it is joined by a watercourse known as the Gundhia or Sohania, which rises in tahsil Faridpur of the district of Bareilly and for 6 km. forms the district boundary. Below the confluence the Bahgul performs this function for 10 km. It then enters the district near Katra and traversing through tahsils Tilhar and Jalalabad joins the Ramganga near Khandar in tahsil Jalalabad. The valley of the Bahgul is well-marked, but the river does not alter its course or overflow its banks, save in unusually heavy floods. Near its confluence with the Ramganga the tract on its right bank lies low and is a level stretch of heavy clay and these characteristics are maintained as far as the confluence. At Sarjupur the river is reinforced by the Reoti, a small stream which rises in Faridpur in district Bareilly and crosses the north of pargana Khara Bajhera; at Pehna in tahsil Jalalabad it receives the Andhoi, a drainage channel traversing the centre of Khara Bajhera and practically forming a backwater of the Ramganga, and at Khandar it is joined on the left bank by a similar stream of the same name, which drains the north-east of tahsil Jalalabad.

Ganga

The Ganga touches this district for some 25 km. The

main channel of the river lies beyond the boundary of district Shah-jahanpur, but there are several branches and backwaters which traverse the *khadar* of tahsil Jalalabad. The river hardly affects the district, as no towns or large villages are to be found on its banks. Areas around the bank of this river are generally sandy wastes growing long grass and tamarisk.

Lakes

There are a few places in the district where the surface water is unable to find an outlet, resulting in the accumulation of water in the depressions and the formation of numerous lakes and swamps. There are no lakes of any great size in tahsil Jalalabad. In tahsil Tilhar they include the large depression at Palia Darobast, where the Garai has its source ; two to the north of Khudaganj ; three in the vicinity of Katra, and the collection of lakes to the north and west of Dnaki Tiwari, from which the Barah derives its origin. In tahsil Shahjahanpur there is one lake of fair size at Jaraon on the main road between Kant and Jalalabad. Other lakes are those at Tikri, Badshahnagar, Simrai, Pandra Sikandrapur, Barmaula and Rajpur. In tahsil Powayan there are several tanks and lakes of considerable importance, the most noteworthy being the ancient tank at Mati, and those at Nawadia Munzabta, Dhanega, Nadautha, Nahil, Barhela and Khandwa, and the Aun, Mainari and Diwali lakes.

GEOLOGY

Geologically the district is formed by sub-Recent to Recent rocks composed of the ordinary Gangetic alluvium. The thickness of the alluvium may be of the order of 300 m. to 500 m. as deduced from the surrounding plains of the State.

The mineral products of the district are few and unimportant. The most valuable is the nodular limestone conglomerate known as *kankar*, which is used principally as a road metal and is also extensively employed for concrete and for lime-burning. It exists in large quantities throughout the district, especially in the Shahjahanpur and Tilhar tahsils and in pargana Baragaon. Quarries are to be found in the near vicinity of all the metalled roads and there are three recognised varieties, the *bichua*, the *chatari* and the dark type called *talia*, used only for lime-burning. *Reh* is practically unknown in this district except in the neighbourhood of the Sot. The clay suitable for making bricks is found almost everywhere in the district.

FLORA

The forests of the district are the continuation of those of the districts of Kheri and Pilibhit and consist for the most part of sal trees, though the growth is generally inferior. Besides the sal, which is locally called *koron*, there are several other species, the chief being *asna* (*Terminalia tomentosa*) and *makua* (*Madhuca latifolia*). The *dhak* is the common tree found throughout the district. Large stretches of open grass waste are found principally in tahsil Powayan, which are of great use as supplying thatching grasses, like *gandar* or *panai*, *kans* (*Saccharum spontaneum*), *sarpet*, *sentha* and *munj*.

The other trees found throughout the district are mango (*Mangifera indica*), babul (*Acacia arabica*), sissoo (*Dalbergia sissoo*), *semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*), *siris* (*Albizzia speciosa*), tamarind (*Tamarindus indica*), *jamun* (*Syzygium cumini*), *bel* (*Aegle marnelos*), *nim* (*Azadirachta indica*), *pipal* (*Ficus religiosa*), *bargad* (*Ficus bengalensis*), *pakar* (*Ficus indica*), and *gular* (*Ficus glomerata*). In addition to these bamboos are to be seen almost everywhere and are of much economic value.

The total forest area of the district in 1976-77 was about 11,181 ha. of which 9,052 ha. were under the control of the forest department and the rest under the management of *gaon sabhas*.

Towards the close of the 19th century and in the beginning of the present century, there was a marked tendency to clear large areas of forest and open up more land for cultivation. This wanton felling of forests continued till the abolition of zamindari in 1952, when most of the district forests were vested in the forest department for scientific management and proper control. The plantations of teak and *sissoo* were raised around Sarti Gadania in 1961 and 1962, Bulandapur in 1964, Nihalpur in 1972 and Baikunthapur Harraipur in 1976.

FAUNA

Animals

The number and varieties of wild animals in the district have considerably decreased since the close of the nineteenth century. The tiger (*Panthera tigris*) was once far from uncommon in the forest tract, but it has now completely become extinct. The leopard (*Panthera pardus*) was found along the Gomati tract, but it has now disappeared from the district. The wolf (*Canis lupus*) is the

only representative of the larger carnivorous animals which can be called an inhabitant of the district. The *chital* or spotted deer are found in the forest of the district. The nilgai (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*) is fairly common in the dhak forests. The common antelope is met with in small number in many parts, especially on the high land along the Gomati and near the Ganga. Other animals include the jackal (*Canis aureus*), fox (*Vulpas begalensis*), hare (*Lepus ruficandatus*), wild pig, the last being fairly abundant in the khadar and also in the forest tracts, where they do much damage to the cultivation in the vicinity.

Birds

Nearly all the varieties of the birds found in the plains of the State are met with in the district. The black partridge (*Francolinus francolinus*), grey partridge (*Francolinus pondicerianus*), pea fowl (*Pavo cristatus*), quail (*Coturnix coturnix*), and the small sandgrouse (*Pterocles exustus*) are generally plentiful. The cold weather immigrants are numerous and varieties of geese, duck, pochard, teal and snipe frequent the larger pools and marshes in the district.

Reptiles

Snakes are common in the district, especially in the rural areas, the chief being cobra (*Naja naja*, *Naja tripudians*), krait (*Bungarus caeruleus*) and rat-snake (*Ptyas mucosus*). The python or *ajgar* (*Python molurus*) is found occasionally in the forest tracts. Of *sauria* the most important is the monitor lizard. The gharial (*Gavialis gangeticus*) and muggar (*Crocodilus palustris*) are found in the Ramganga and the Ganga. However, they are now rarely seen, the species being on way to extinction.

Fish

Fish abound in the rivers and lakes. Many varieties of fish are to be found, generally identical with those which are common to the rivers and lakes of all the districts in the plains, though as usual the local names differ to some extent from those in vogue elsewhere. The most common belong to the families of the *cyprinidae* and *situridae*.

Game-laws

The game-laws in the district are governed by the Wild Life Protection Act, 1972 which imposes a total ban on shooting

of wild animals in danger of fast extinction due to changes in and reduction of their natural habitat and poaching.

CLIMATE

The climate of the district is characterised by dampness in the monsoon period, a hot dry summer and a bracing cold season. The year may be divided into four seasons. The cold season from about the middle of November to February is followed by the summer from March to about the middle of June. The period from mid-June to about the end of September is the monsoon season. October and the first half of November constitute the post-monsoon season.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall in the district are available for five stations, namely Shahjahanpur, Powayan, Tilhar, Jalalabad and Khutar for sufficiently long period. The details of rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in Statement 1 at the end of the chapter. The average annual or the normal rainfall in the district is 1,019.5 mm. The rainfall in the district in general increases from the south-west towards the north-east. The annual rainfall varies from 860.4 mm. at Jalalabad to 1,108.1 mm. at Powayan. About 87 per cent of the annual rainfall is received during the south-west monsoon months from June to September, July being the rainiest month. The variation in the rainfall from year to year is appreciable. In the fifty-year period from 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall amounting to 185 per cent of the normal occurred in 1936. The lowest annual rainfall which was 57 per cent of the normal occurred in 1905. In the same fifty-year period there were 12 years when the annual rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal, two consecutive years of such low rainfall occurring twice. Considering the rainfall at individual stations, two consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred thrice at Shahjahanpur, Powayan and Tilhar, twice at Khutar and once at Jalalabad. Even three consecutive years of such low rainfall occurred once each at Shahjahanpur, Jalalabad and Khutar in the same fifty-year period. The following statement shows that the annual rainfall in the district was between 800 mm. and 1,300 mm. in 31 years out of fifty:

Frequency of Annual Rainfall in district

(Data 1901—1950)

Range in mm.	No. of years	Range in mm.	No. of years
501—600	2	1,201—1,300	3
601—700	5	1,301—1,400	4
701—800	4	1,401—1,500	1
801—900	7	1,501—1,600	2
901—1,000	11	1,601—1,700	0
1,001—1,100	5	1,701—1,800	0
1,101—1,200	5	1,801—1,900	1

On an average there are 45 rainy days (i.e. days with rainfall of 2.5 mm. or more) in a year in the district. The distribution of rainy days is more or less uniform throughout the district.

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the district was 448.6 mm. at Powayan on October 1, 1958.

Temperature

The only meteorological observatory in the district which is located at Shahjahanpur began functioning only recently. The description of the temperature and other climatic elements in the district is, therefore, based on the records of the observatories in the neighbouring districts where similar climatic conditions prevail. From about the middle of November, temperatures decrease rapidly and in January, the coldest month, the mean daily maximum temperature is about 22°C. and the mean daily minimum about 8°C. In the cold season in association with cold waves in the wake of passing western disturbances, the minimum temperature goes down occasionally to the freezing point of the water and frosts occur. Temperature rises rapidly after February. May and early part of June form the hottest part of the year. In May the mean daily maximum temperature is about 40°C. and the mean daily minimum is about 25°C. On some days temperatures rise up to about 46°C. There is welcome relief from the heat when afternoon thunder-showers occur. With the advance of the south-west monsoon into the district during the latter half of June, day temperatures drop appreciably but nights continue to be as warm as in the summer season. After the withdrawal of the monsoon by about the end of September, although the days are as warm as in the monsoon season but nights become progressively cooler.

Humidity

Air is very humid in the south-west monsoon season. The summer is the driest part of the year, especially the afternoons when the relative humidities are less than 25 per cent.

Cloudiness

During the south-west monsoon season, the skies are heavily clouded or overcast. During the rest of the year skies are clear or lightly clouded except for short spells during the cold season when in association with passing western disturbances skies become cloudy.

Wind

Winds are generally light with calms in the mornings. During the period from October to April, winds blow mostly from the west or north-west. By May easterlies and south-easterlies appear and these predominate during the south-west monsoon season.

Special Weather Phenomena

In the summer season the district experiences duststorms and thunderstorms with occasional squalls. Rain during the monsoon season is often associated with thunder. Thunder storms also occur in association with western disturbances during the cold season. Fog is fairly common in winter.

STATEMENT I

Rainfall

Reference Page no. 14

Station	No. of years of date	Normal Rainfall (in mm.)												Extreme Rainfall				
		Janu- ary	Feb- ruary	March	April	May	June	July	August	Septem- ber	Octo- ber	Novem- ber	Decem- ber	Annual rainfall as percentage of normal of normal and years**	Highest annual rainfall as percentage of normal of normal and years**	Lowest annual rainfall as percentage of normal of normal and years**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Shahjahanpur	50 a	17.5	21.3	11.2	9.1	13.5	121.2	323.6	236.0	192.8	44.5	2.5	8.1	1,056.3	181 (1936)	55 (1905)	338.1	October 10, 1903
	b	1.6	1.8	1.0	0.9	1.4	4.6	12.3	12.4	7.5	1.2	0.2	0.8	45.6				
Powayan	50 a	17.5	24.1	12.9	7.6	14.5	146.6	325.6	303.3	198.6	43.9	4.6	8.9	1,108.1	186 (1923)	53 (1923)	448.6	October 1, 1958
	b	1.7	1.9	1.0	0.8	1.4	5.0	12.0	12.5	7.6	1.3	0.3	0.8	46.3				
Tilhar	50 a	15.2	22.1	11.7	8.1	17.5	99.8	300.7	273.3	170.9	39.4	2.5	9.1	970.3	198 (1936)	44 (1918)	272.5	October 10, 1903
	b	1.6	1.9	1.1	0.8	1.4	4.6	11.5	12.1	7.1	1.1	0.3	0.8	44.3				
Jalalabad	50 a	13.7	18.0	10.9	8.1	12.9	84.6	253.7	258.1	152.4	38.9	2.0	7.1	860.4	212 (1936)	55 (1918)	295.1	October 10, 1903
	b	1.4	1.5	1.0	0.8	1.3	4.1	11.2	11.7	7.2	1.3	0.2	0.6	42.3				
Khutar	41 a	18.5	25.7	12.9	7.6	22.6	146.3	296.2	300.0	220.2	38.3	6.3	7.6	1,102.2	176 (1931)	53 (1918)	414.0	October 1, 1958
	b	1.8	2.0	0.9	0.7	1.6	5.5	11.3	11.5	7.6	1.4	0.4	0.7	45.4				
Shahjahanpur (District)	a	16.5	22.2	11.9	8.1	17.2	119.7	300.0	284.1	187.0	41.0	3.6	8.2	1,019.5	185 (1936)	57 (1905)		
	b	1.6	1.8	1.0	0.8	1.4	4.8	11.6	12.0	7.4	1.3	0.3	0.7	44.7				

(a) Normal rainfall in mm.

(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

*Based on all available data up to 1964

**Years given in brackets

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

ANCIENT PERIOD

The early history of the region covered by the present district of Shahjahanpur is wrapped in almost complete obscurity. The literary and epigraphical records do not reveal any geographical name current in the ancient period which may be located in the district of Shahjahanpur. But the ancient mounds, coins, terracotta figurines, potteries and other antiquities discovered here show that there was definitely regular habitation in the area long before the advent of the Muslims in India. No systematic archaeological excavations have been carried out in the district, but there are several old mounds (*kheras*) which are supposed to contain the ruins of ancient buildings and habitations. The villages of Mati, Gola Raipur, Thaneka, Nigohi and Bajhera, Budhwan, Shahganj and the town of Tilhar, where a large number of terracotta figurines, potteries, large bricks, coins and ruins of old buildings have been discovered, have in them deserted sites of ancient habitations of the district.¹

That the region was inhabited in pre-historic times is suggested by the presence here of old primitive people, such as the Arakhs, Bihars, Ahirs, Gujars, Pasis and Bhils, who possibly represent the remnants of the aboriginal tribes of this area.² But no pre-historic antiquity of a definite date or associated with any of these tribes has been recovered. Systematic exploration and excavations are expected to yield evidence or antiquities belonging to the earlier periods. Local traditions associate the district with the mythical Raja Ben or Vena,³ who is said to have been anti-Brahmanical and to have lived long before the time of Vaivasvata Manu.⁴ The ruins of an old

1. Nevill, H. R. : *Shahjahanpur : A Gazetteers*, p. 131, Fuhrer, A. : *The Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh*, pp. 41-42

2. Nevill, op. cit., p. 131

3. *Ibid.*

4. Cunningham, A. : *Archaeological Survey of India-Reports*, Vol. I, pp. 355-



Ancient Findings at Shahganj

fort and a tank at Mati (in tahsil Powayan) are attributed to this mythical king.¹

The earliest known Aryan people, associated with this region, were the Panchalas who lived in the land lying between the Himalayas in the north and the Chambal in the south.² The Panchalas were close allies of Kurus, as indicated by the old name, Kuru-Panchala.³ The Vedic texts do not know of North Panchala and South Panchala which we come across in the *Mahabharata* and the *Puranas*. In the post-Vedic literature the term Panchala has been used to denote the land as well as the people who inhabited it. In that period the Panchalas had evidently extended their territory by conquest and had entered into a friendly alliance with the Kurus.⁴ The two together held a prominent position among the people living in Madhyadesa and, for some time, had one and the same king such as Kraivya and Sona Satrasaha, who performed horse sacrifices on the bank of the river Yamuna and claimed imperial power.⁵

The traditional history of the region as narrated by the *Puranas* begins with Pururavas Aila, the first monarch who held sway over this region.⁶ His great-grandson, Yayati, is said to have ruled the whole of Madhyadesa including this district.⁷ Some time later Mandhatri of the solar race of Ayodhya became the overlord of this entire region. Kartavirya Arjuna, the Haibaya king, who is said to have led his victorious campaigns, as far north as Himalayas⁸ evidently overran this district. In his time the Paurava king, Bharata, was the overlord of the whole of northern India and obviously held sway over the district.⁹ Sixth in descent from him was Ajamidha whose second son, Nila founded the kingdom of North Panchala (which included this district) with his capital probably at what later came to be known as

1. Nevill, *op. cit.*, pp. 131, 202

2. Majumdar, R. C. and Pusalker, A. D. : *History and Culture of the Indian People, The Vedic Age* (Bombay, 1965), Vol. I, p. 257

3. *Ibid.*

4. Rapson, E. J. (Ed.) : *The Cambridge History of India*, Vol. I, p. 105 ; Macdonell, A. A. and Keith, A. B. : *Vedic Index of Names and Subjects*, Vol. I (Varanasi, 1958), p. 469

5. Majumdar and Pusalker, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 255 ; Rapson, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 105

6. Majumdar and Pusalker, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 277

7. Pargiter, F. E. : *Ancient Indian Historical Tradition* (Delhi, 1962), pp. 258-259

8. Majumdar and Pusalker, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 236

9. *Ibid.*, p. 296

Ahichhatra (modern Ramnagar in Bareilly district)¹ Bhrimyashva (fifth in descent from Nila) was the famous king of the Panchalas and after his death his kingdom was divided amongst his five sons, Mudgala, the eldest, founding the main branch of the rulers of North Panchala. Mudgala's great-grandson Divodasa, extended his kingdom considerably and during the reign of Sudasa (fifth in descent from Divodasa) the North Panchala power rose to unprecedented eminence through his victory in the famous 'battle of ten kings.'² But his successors were weak and almost lost the kingdom, only Prishata being able to rehabilitate with the help of the rulers of Hastinapur the fortunes of the dynasty and to become the king of the whole of Panchala with Ahichhatra as the capital.³ Prishata's son and successor, Drupda, fell out with his friend, Drona who went over to the Kurus of Hastinapur and with their help attacked and vanquished Drupada, but returned to him the South Panchala part of the conquered realm,⁴ keeping for himself the territory of North Panchala (including this district).⁵ In the Mahabharata war the Panchalas were the staunch supporters of the Kauravas. But nothing is heard about the Panchalas after this great war.

In the post-Mahabharata period, the common name Panchala was used for the entire region, of which Kampilya (modern Kampil in the Farrukhabad district situated at some distance from the southern border of the Shahjahanpur district) was the capital.⁶

During the time of Mahavira and Buddha in the sixth century B. C., Panchala figured in the list of the sixteen premier states (*mahajanapadas*). It then comprised the region covered by the present districts of Budaun, Bareilly, Farrukhabad, Shahjahanpur and the adjoining areas.⁷ About the middle of the fourth century B. C., this region was annexed to the Nanda empire of Magadha and after the overthrow of the Nandas, a quarter of a century later, the district became part of the powerful Maurya empire and remained so for the next century and a half.⁸ With the downfall of the Mauryas after

1. *Ibid.*, p. 296

2. Fargiter, F. E. : *Ancient Indian Historical Tradition*, p. 275

3. Majumdar and Pusalker, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 297

4. *Ibid.*, p. 298

5. *Mahabharata, Adi Parva*, ch. 130, 137

6. Majumdar and Pusalker, Vol. I, p. 319 ; Rapson, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 281

7. Majumdar R. C. and Pusalker, A. D. : *History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. II, p. 11

8. *Ibid.*, pp. 32—42

the death of Asoka in 236 B. C., the Sunga power rose into prominence and Pushyamitra Sunga became the lord of the entire region including this district also. Sunga power lasted for about one hundred years from 187 B. C. to 75 B. C. but became prey to the centrifugal forces which possibly received a fillip from the incursions of the Greeks (Demetrius and his lieutenant Menander).¹

The history of this region after the end of the Sunga dynasty to the rise of the Guptas is very obscure. We have a large number of coins of the Ahichhatra rulers found at Mati in this district, which was at that time an important city.² It seems probable that towards the close of the second century B. C. an almost independent dynasty ruled over the whole of the North Panchala region including this district.³ These local rulers are usually designated as the Panchala kings. Though no further details are available about them, they are generally believed to have flourished between 200 B. C. and 200 A. D.⁴ About the beginning of the second century A. D. when the Kusanas under Kaniska expanded eastward, the local rulers of this region seem to have been subjugated but allowed to live as feudatories.⁵ About the close of the second century Kusana rulers showed signs of weakness and the local Panchala rulers rose in revolt against them. Some time in the first half of the third century A. D. the Panchala line of rulers came to an end and was probably succeeded by a Naga dynasty.⁶ Achyuta, the last of the Naga kings of Panchala, was overthrown by the Gupta emperor, Samudragupta about the middle of the fourth century A. D.⁷

During the fourth century A. D., the Guptas established imperial unity in India and the present district of Shahjahanpur also shared the fruits of the golden age as a part of the empire. For the next two centuries or so, the district formed part of the Ahichhatra *bhukti* (a province) of the Gupta empire, which was governed by a *kumaramatya* (governor).⁸

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 95—104; Sastri, K. A. N. (Ed.) : *A Comprehensive History of India*, Vol. II, p. 104

2. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 131

3. Rapson, *op. cit.*, pp. 473, 491

4. Puri, B. N. : *India in the Time of Patanjali*, p. 44

5. Sastri, *op. cit.*, p. 107

6. *Ibid.*, p. 256

7. Majumdar and Pusalker, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 173; Majumdar R. C. and Altehat, A. S. : *The Vakataka Gupta Age*, p. 139

8. Bajpai, K. D. : *Ahichhatra*, p. 8

After the downfall of the Guptas in the latter half of the sixth century A. D. the district appears to have come under the domination of the Maukhari kings of Kannauj¹ and later under emperor Harsha (606—647 A. D.). The Ahichhatra *bhukti* was in existence in Harsha's time also and his second and more prominent capital, Kannauj was situated on the bank of the Ganga, very near to the southern border of the district.

For more than half a century after the death of Harsha, the history of this region and also that of the rest of northern India, spells anarchy and confusion. In the second quarter of the eighth century, the district seems to have been included in the dominion of king Yashovarman (725—52 A. D.) of Kannauj² and then for several decades, formed part of the kingdom of the Ayudha kings, also of Kannauj³. Some time in the first half of the ninth century, probably soon after the capture of Kannauj (about 815 A. D.) by Nagabhata II, it came under the sway of the rising power of the Gurjara Pratiharas.⁴ Afterwards, under Bhoja I (836—885 A. D.) and Mahendrapala I (885—910 A. D.) the Gurjara Pratihara dynasty attained imperial glory.⁵ Several factors including the invasions of the Rashtrakuta kings, fratricidal struggles, incapable rulers and incessant Muslim raids contributed to the downfall of the dynasty. The process of the disintegration of the Gurjara Pratihara empire was particularly hastened by the repeated invasions of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni. In his expedition of 1019 against Kannauj, Mahmud traversed a part of the Shahjahanpur district.

The tottering Pratihara empire collapsed under the repeated onslaughts by Muslims. The process of disintegration had set in about fifty years earlier when the feudatories started declaring their independence. Now even those who had persisted in their loyalty ceased to owe any allegiance to their erstwhile overlords.⁶ One such dynasty was that of the Rashtrakutas of Vodamayata (Budaun), which established itself in this region, probably as a feudatory of the Gurjara

1. Tripathi, R. S. : *History of Kannauj to the Moslem Conquest*, pp. 35, 52, 55

2. *Ibid.*, p. 186

3. *Ibid.*, pp. 212—215 ; Majumdar, R. C. and Pusalker, A. D. : *History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. IV, pp. 21-22

4. Puri, B. N. : *The History of the Gurjara-Pratiharas*, p. 45 ; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, pp. 230—233

5. Puri, *op. cit.*, pp. 51—74

6. Niyogi, R. : *History of the Gahadavala Dynasty*, p. 4, Majumdar and Pusalker, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 37 ; Tripathi, *op. cit.*, p. 233

Pratiharas, some time in the latter half of the tenth century. In the second quarter of the eleventh century, the Rashtrakutas seem to have exploited the weakness of the Gurjara Pratiharas. They became independent and later occupied Kannauj itself and ruled over the region which included Shahjahanpur district lying between Budaun and Kannauj.¹

In the later period of the twelfth century, this region remained for a long period in the undisputed possession of aboriginal tribes of Ahirs, Gujars, Pasis and Arakhs. The battle of Tarain in 1193 A. D. between Mohammad Ghuri and Prithviraj, the last Chauhan ruler of Delhi, does not appear to have brought about any immediate political change in this region. Qutb-ud-din Aibak captured Budaun from the Rashtrakutas in 1197 A. D., but it seems that the victorious Muslim army paid no attention to this district, which was then covered with dense forests.

MEDIEVAL PERIOD

This area formed part of the bigger region, then known as Katehr, the term loosely applied to all the tracts between the left banks of the Ganga and the hills as far eastwards as Avadh.² This region being mainly covered by forest, however, did not attract attention of the expanding arms of the Muslim domination³. It is, therefore, not surprising that while several important Muslim colonies were established in Hardoi, as for example, Bilgram, which dates from the reign of Iltutmish, there were no Muslim settlements in Shahjahanpur till the occupation of the isolated garrison town of Jalalabad, Kant and Gola.⁴ The first is generally believed to have been founded by Jalaluddin Firuz Khalji, who ascended the throne in 1298 A. D., but it is very much possible that the foundation of the place, or at all events, the adoption of its present name, did not take place till the time of Jalaluddin Muhammad Akbar. There are ample indications that region comprising the Katehr including the present district remained under the undisputed sway of the Hindu chieftains. Qutb-ud-din's successor Iltutmish who became sultan in 1211 A. D.⁵ led a

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 298—300

2. Nevill, H. R. : *Shahjahanpur, A Gazetteer*, (Allahabad, 1910), p. 131

3. *Ibid.*

4. *Ibid.*, p. 132

5. Haig, Wolseley : *The Cambridge History of the India*, Vol. III (Delhi, 1958), p. 51

large expedition into this region in 1227 A. D. and severely punished the recalcitrant Katehriyas.

However, his successors proved themselves to be weak and docile and could not keep the area under their control and the imperial authority was flouted everywhere including the Katehr region.

In the trans-Gangetic area, the Katehriyas from their stronghold at Ahichhatra frequently raided the district of Budaun and adjoining areas.¹ An expedition led by the governor of Budaun in 1242 A. D. proved ineffective. In 1259 A. D., however, another attempt to overpower Katehriyas was made on a large scale. Led by Balban, who then was a principal advisor of the sultan, the Delhi forces on this occasion crossed the Ganga near Hardwar and advanced along the foothills. The Katehriyas offered sustained resistance and killed one of Balban's officers Izzuddin Darmashi.² The Katehriya Rajputs showed no signs of weakness and extended their depredations to Budaun and Amroha.³ They mustered greater strength in the reign of Balban who ascended the throne in 1266 A.D. He had to tackle the serious problem of Katehriya uprising. The magnitude of the disturbances was such that even the governors of Budaun and Amroha expressed their inability to maintain order in their respective fiefs.⁴ The sultan, therefore, immediately set out with all haste to chastise the rebels. In his usual and relentless manner he ordered his five thousand archers to plunder and set fire to the habitat of the insurgents and put to the sword every adult male. Barani records in his *Tarikh-i-Firuz-Shahi*, "the blood of the rioters ran in streams, heaps of the slain were to be seen near every village, and the stench of the dead reached as far as the Ganges"⁵

After this terrible carnage the wood-cutters were detailed to clear off the jungles and the roads were built to make the region accessible as a remedy against future trouble. Barani further records that from that day the *iqta* (fiefs) of Baran, Amroha, Sambhal and Karubi (Katehr)

1. Habibullah, A. B. M. : *The foundation—Muslim Rule in India*, p. 167

2. *Ibid.*, Yahya bin Ahmad bin Abdullah Sirhindi : *Tarikh-i-Mubarakshahi*, p. 39

3. Habibullah, *op. cit.*, p. 167

4. Elliot, H. M. and Dowson, J. : *The History of India as told by its own Historians*, Vol. III, pp. 105—106

5. Habibullah, *op. cit.*, pp. 168, 169; Muzumdar R.C. and Fusalker, A. D. : *History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol. V, p. 134; Elliot, H. M. and Dowson, J. , *op. cit.*, Vol. III, p. 106

were rendered safe and permanently freed from trouble.¹ The peace and tranquillity thus brought about however, did not last long and during the nominal reigns of the weak successors of Balban, the trouble again marred the civil administration in this region.

After this nothing is heard about Shahjahanpur till the accession of Firuz Tughlaq, the third ruler of the Tughlaq dynasty in 1351. However, Katehriyas in the region appear to have grown in strength gradually, though they had to acknowledge the supremacy of Delhi rulers by paying regular annuity.

In 1379 Raja Kharag Singh, the most celebrated of Katehriyas,² invited Saiyad Muhammad the governor of Budaun and his brother as his guest and killed them treacherously. Firuz Tughlaq, then ruling at Delhi, attacked Katehr to avenge the treacherous murder of Saiyad Muhammad. The raja fled to the hills, but sultan laid the whole tract waste converting all western Rohilkhand into a vast hunting preserve "so that nothing but game lived there."³

After the conclusion of the expedition, sultan directed Malik Daud governor of Sambhal to ravage Katehr every year, a process that was repeated at any rate till 1385.⁴ Besides this sultan also led expedition in this region annually ostensibly to hunt, but in fact to strike terror into the hearts of the zamindars.⁵

This policy merely served to drive the Katchriyas further to the east. Kharag Singh conquered the Ahars and jungle tribes of Bisalpur and then extended his authority over all the country between the Ramganga and the Sarda.⁶ After the death of Firuz Tughlaq, the empire fell into a state of chaos and civil war ensued between the contending factions to seize the power at Delhi. Immediately before the catastrophic invasion of Timur in 1397-98, Iqbal Khan an influential noble of Mahmud Shah who ruled at Delhi from 1399—1412 entered Katehr to exact tribute from a Hindu chieftain Hari Singh.⁷

1. Elliot, H. M. and Dowson, J : *op. cit.*, Vol. III, p. 106

2. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 132; Sirhindi, Yahya bin Ahmad bin Abdullah : *Tarikh-i-Mul'arashahi*, p. 142; Ahmad, Kwajsh Nizamuddin : *The Tabaqat-i- Akbari*, Vol. I, pp. 250—251

3. Sirhindi : *op. cit.*, p. 142

4. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 133

5. Sirhindi, *op. cit.*, p. 143

6. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 132

7. Ahmad, Khwaja, Nizamuddin; *op. cit.*, p. 282; (He names the loc al
often as Ray Nar Singh); Nevill, H. R., *op. cit.*, p. 133 (He names the local chieftain:
Hari Singh)

After the death of Mahmud Shah in 1412 A.D.,¹ the nobles of Delhi selected Daulat Khan Lodi as his successor. Daulat Khan Lodi seems to have brought this part of the country under his strict sway by securing the submission of Hari Singh in 1414 A. D.² He along with Mahabat Khan, who was then governor of Budaun extended their allegiance to Daulat Khan in the ensuing battle for the throne of Delhi. Daulat Khan Lodi failed to capture the power and surrendered to Khizr Khan in 1415 A. D.³ Khizr Khan ruled till 1421 A. D. immediately after his accession he paid attention to the disturbed region of Katehr and sent an army under Taj-ul-Mulk,⁴ his vizir, to chastise the recalcitrant Katehriya chief Hari Singh. The fear of imperial army compelled Hari Singh to take shelter in the jungles of Aonla and the entire Katehr was utterly devastated. Shortly afterwards, however, Hari Singh submitted and was pardoned. Hari Singh remained quiet for a few years, but in 1418 he again showed signs of rebellion. Hari Singh not only withdrew the payment of tribute, but also ravaged borders of Budaun and Sambhal. Once again Taj-ul-Mulk was sent to obtain the submission of the rebel who, when pressed, retired to the jungles of Aonla and from there to the hills of Kumaon.⁵ However, after the return of imperial forces, Hari Singh again came out of his hideout and unfurled the standard of resistance, necessitating this time (1419 A.D.) the personal march of sultan Khizr Khan, who along with a large army crossed the Ramganga and devastated Sambhal including the entire belt of Katehr. The expedition failed to subdue the insurgents and in the following years repeated expeditions had to be taken up to suppress Hari Singh. Hari Singh though agreed to pay the tribute but it is doubtful that he became subservient after the expeditions.⁶ Khizr Khan's successor Sultan Mubarak Shah (1421—34) had to take an expedition in 1429 A.D., to Katehr and had to be content only with the payment of revenue. An agreement was reached by which Hari Singh's son entered the service of the sultan, although in the following year the sultan found it advisable to take yet another expedition against Hari Singh. This time Hari Singh was imprisoned for a few days in default of payment of revenue, but was soon released after making the payment.⁷ From

1. Ahmed, Khwaja Nizamuddin, *op. cit.*, pp. 290-291

2. *Ibid.*

3. *Ibid.*, pp. 291-292; Sirhindi, *op. cit.*, pp. 185-186

4. Ahmad, Khwaja Nizamuddin, *op. cit.*, p. 293

5. Sirhindi, *op. cit.*, p. 194

6. Ahmad, Khwaja Nizamuddin, *op. cit.*, p. 306

7. Sirhindi, *op. cit.*, p. 207

this time onwards, no revolts are heard of, as the Katehriyas did not make any attempt to regain their independence.

In all probability Gola (in Shahjahanpur) was occupied at this time, a fact which is further supported by the numerous coins found here and at Mati.¹ Besides this, Zia-ud-din Barni and Farishta have also mentioned about Gola in their annals.² But it was less important in comparison to Kant, where a garrison was established due to the discovery of a new eastern route through Sandila and Lucknow.

After the death of Muhammad Shah, (1439) his imbecile son Alauddin Alam Shah ascended the throne, but his authority over the nobles was nominal. The region of Katehr was also included in his kingdom. In 1451, Bahlul Lodi occupied the throne at Delhi, while Alauddin Alam Shah retired to Budaun.³ Under the reign of Bahlul Lodi (1451—1488) the region of Katehr witnessed less trouble. But it appears that the Katehriyas did not pay their annual tribute. In his reign and that of his successors, the Katehr proper (the territory lying between the left bank of the Ganga and the hills as far eastwards as Avadh) remained under the possession of the Rajput chiefs.⁴ However, the tract lying along the Ganga known as *khadar* and *bhur* country and the principal highways passing through this region were from the beginning subjected to Muslim influence. The route through Jalalabad witnessed the frequent passage of the Muslim armies.⁵ Husain Shah the ruler of Jaunpur, passed through this route in 1478 A. D. towards Budaun, to express his solicitude at the death of Alauddin Alam Shah. Rivals of Delhi and Jaunpur rulers also passed through this route in their respective campaigns.

After Bahlul's death, his eldest son Sikandar Lodi ascended the throne in 1488 A. D. In 1491-22, the Katehriyas rose in rebellion against him. All the local chiefs of this region united and offered resistance to him but were defeated.⁶ After this the Katehriyas did not create trouble for a long time in the reign of Lodi sultans. They were held in check by Muslim garrison of Budaun.

After Sikandar's death, his son Ibrahim ascended the throne. His stern behaviour and open disregard of old nobility caused general

1. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 133

2. *Ibid.*

3. Pandey, A. D. : *The First Afghan Empire*, p. 57

4. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 133

5. *Ibid.*

6. Ahmad, Khwaja Nizamuddin, *op. cit.*, p. 360

resentment and at the time of Babur's invasion in 1526, the Afghan elements had become predominant in this region. The country beyond the Ganga came in the possession of refractory chieftains. The Katehr region was held nominally, at this time by Afghan nobles, but none of them were strong enough to bring the entire region under their control. The predominance of Afghan elements came to an end with the victory of Babur in 1526. In 1528 Babur captured Avadh, Sambhal including Katehr and Rohilkhand. In 1529 prince Humayun Mirza was allotted the fief of Sambhal, which included the territory of Katehr. He held it till his accession to the throne in 1530 A. D.¹ On Humayun's accession to the throne, Sambhal was assigned to Mirza Askari, Humayun's younger brother.² But during the ten years (1530—39) of Humayun's reign, nothing much regarding Shahjahanpur is heard. However, a guess about Shahjahanpur can be made on the stray references of Sambhal and Katehr, the latter in all probability comprised the area covered by the district.

In 1539, Haibat Khan Niazi and other Afghan nobles drove out all the Mughals from Katehr and captured Sambhal. Haibat Khan joined Sher Shah, while he was engaged in the struggle against Humayun. After defeating Humayun, Sher Shah placed Sambhal under the charge of one Nasir Khan. His tyrannical behaviour compelled the emperor, to replace him by Isa Khan Kalkapur,³ a man of greater confidence and sagacity and Nasir Khan was placed under him.⁴ He immediately reduced the entire Katehr and brought lawless zamindars to submission. It appears from the records that his jagir also included town of Tilhar and parganas of Kant and Gola.⁵ To ensure further security, he destroyed the jungles which constituted hideouts for refractory zamindars. Sher Shah's successor Islam Shah (1545—54) was made to call the Katehriyas to his standard in his campaign against Khawas Khan, who was then an influential noble of the empire.

Isa Khan Kalkapur, governor of Sambhal, was succeeded by Taj

1. Ahmad, Khwaja Nizamuddin, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 44

2. Yadgar, Ahmad : *Tarikh-i-Shahi*, edited by M. Hidayat Husain (Calcutta, 1939), p. 128

3. Abbas Khan : *Tarikh-i-Sher Shahi*, (English trans. by Elliot, H. M.), p. 100-101

4. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 134

5. Elliot and Dowson, *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, p. 383

Khan Kirani, who became famous for the treacherous murder of Khawas Khan, at the behest of Islam Shah.

After the death of Islam Shah, the entire Rohilkhand and particularly the region covering this district appears to have relapsed into a state of utter confusion and disorder. Historical records are, however, meagre to give any connected account of this region till about the accession of Akbar in 1556 A. D. After the formal capture of Agra and Delhi, Humayun confirmed Qambar as governor of Budaun and bestowed Sambhal on Ali Quli Khan. Qambar highly resented Ali Quli Khan's appointment, as he was deprived of a greater portion of his territory. He made a march to Budaun, plundered it and advanced as far as Kant and Gola. Later on, Qambar was defeated, captured and put to death by Ali Quli Khan.

When Akbar ascended the throne in 1556 A.D., Ali Quli Khan, having received the title of Khan Zaman was governor of Sambhal. He foiled the attempt of the Rajputs to revolt.¹ During the early years of his reign, Kant-o-Gola was a separate sirkar in the subah of Budaun,² and was administered by Husain Khan Tukriya. In 1573, he was sent to crush the uprising at Budaun. Husain Khan Tukriya died in 1576 at Fatehpur Sikri. After his death, Kant-o-Gola was merged in the sirkar of Budaun, and thus lost its separate status of a sirkar.

Abul Fazal's *Ain-i-Akbari* throws considerable light on the administration of the district during Akbar's reign, which remained practically unchanged throughout the reigns of his successors. The foremost change that was brought about was that Budaun lost its status of being the capital of subah, and became merely a sirkar in the subah of Delhi. The area covered by the present district of Shahjahanpur lay in the sirkar of Budaun with the exception of portion of the Jalalabad tahsil which was included in the Shamsabad *mahal* or *pargana* of Kannauj sirkar. The *mahals* of Kant, Gola and Bareilly³ embraced the major portion of the present district. The *mahal* of Kant comprised the Shahjahanpur tahsil, *pargana* of Tilhar and part of Jalalabad and Khera Bajhera. The chief landowners of Kant were Bachhil Rajputs, who furnished a force of 300 horse and 2,000 foot. The *mahal* of Gola embraced *pargana* Nigohi, tahsil Powayan and part of Lakhim-

1. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 134

2. *Ibid.*

3. Abul Fazl : *Ain-i-Akbari*, Vol. II (Eng. Trans. by H. S. Jarret), p. 167

pur-Kheri and Pilibhit districts. The principal landowners of this *mahal* were Bachhil Rajputs. They provided a fighting force of 100 cavalry and 1,000 infantry. A portion of Khara Bajhera was included in the small pargana of Saneha, in Budaun sirkar and part of it comprising Katra and Jalalpur was included in the *mahal* of Bareilly.

However, owing to the change of names and the alterations in area in the case of several parganas, it is at present not possible to effect a complete reconstruction of this district as it existed during Akbar's reign. Consequently any comparison of the old and present areas and revenue receipts, can only be approximate.

The history of Shahjahanpur remained obscure for a considerable period after the death of Akbar in 1605. The contemporary historians rarely make any mention of this place in their annals and concentrate mainly upon the events occurring around the capital or on the outlying confines of the empire. It appears that the imperial governors paid less attention to this part and local Katehriya chieftains continued to enjoy undisturbed possessions in their territory so long as they did not create disturbances.

After the merger of Kant-o-Gola in the sirkar of Budaun in about 1576, nothing is heard of the district till the days of Shahjahan (1628—1658). He shifted the headquarters of Budaun sirkar from Budaun to Bareilly.¹ In his reign the Katehriyas extended their possessions into the *tarai*. They were chastised by Rustam Khan, the governor of Moradabad and were expelled from the *tarai* region. A more serious rebellion by the Katehriyas broke out at the end of Shahjahan's reign, but it was put down by Makrand Rai, the *faujdar* of Bareilly.

During the reign of Shahjahan, Diler Khan and Bahadur Khan, who were real brothers, played important roles in relation to the district. They were Jagirdars of Kalpi and Kamaul respectively. Bahadur Khan also known as Sarabdal Khan was conferred the title of Umdat-ul-mulk.² It was Bahadur Khan, who laid the foundation of Shahjahanpur town, giving to it the name of the emperor.³

Diler Khan attacked the Rajputs, Bachhils and Gaurs in 1647 to punish them for plundering a treasure convey at Kant in the same

1. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 136

2. *Ibid.*

3. *Imperial Gazetteer* : United Provinces (Bareilly Division), p. 78

year. He defeated them at Chinaur near the present cantonment. In recognition of his services, the emperor bestowed 14 villages on him and ordered him to build a fort. He selected the site at a place called Noner Khera, near the junctions of the Garra and Khannaut.¹ Diler Khan also established the *muhallas* of Diler Ganj and Bahadur Ganj in the Shahjahanpur town.²

In Aurangzeb's reign once again Katcheriyas created trouble in 1679 and refused to pay the revenue. Muhammad Rafi, the *nazim* of Bareilly, was able to suppress them only with great difficulty.

After the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, this region together with the entire north India fell into a state of utter anarchy. The Mughal empire began to disintegrate which gave rise to several independent principalities in north India, the territories of Farrukhabad, Avadh, Bundelkhand and Rohilkhand being more important. This district alongwith entire Rohilkhand, later on, came under the influence of the Bangash and Rohilla Pathans, who played a major role in the subsequent history of the district.

MODERN PERIOD

The first to rise into prominence were the Bangash Pathans. Their chief Muhammad Khan Bangash³ (the founder of Farrukhabad) was a cavalier of fortune, who in 1720 took forcible possession of Jalalabad (district Shahjahanpur). His growing power brought to his side the Pathans of Shahjahanpur, many of whom enlisted themselves in his service.⁴

In the meantime, the Rohillas of this region were also extending their sphere of influence. Ali Muhammad Khan, their leader (with headquarters at Aonla in Bareilly district) was gradually extending his possessions. In 1741 he occupied the bulk of the parganas of the present Shahjahanpur district.⁵ He died on September 25, 1748.⁶

1. Nevill, *op. cit.*, p. 136

2. *Ibid.*

3. Conybeare, H. C. and Atkinson, E. T. : *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India, Rohilkhand Division. Part I*, Vol. V (Allahabad, 1879), p. 105

4. Fisher, F. H. : *Statistical, Descriptive and Historical Account of the North-Western Provinces of India*, Vol. IX, Part I.—*Shahjahanpur* (Allahabad, 1883), p. 145

5. Srivastava, A. L. : *Awadh Ke Pratham Do Nawab* (Hindi translation of) *The First Two Nawabs of Awadh* (Agra, 1957), p. 112

6. *Ibid.*, p. 117

In November, 1749, Qaim Khan Bangash of Farrukhabad, at the instigation of Safdar Jang (the nawab vizir of Avadh), invaded Rohilkhand, but was defeated and slain by the Rohillas at Dauri Rasulpur near Budaun.¹ The result of this battle was that the entire present district of Shahjahanpur fell in the hands of the Rohillas whose history is rather concerned with the accounts of other districts of Rohilkhand than with Shahjahanpur. The latter passed into the hands of the most prominent Rohilla leader, Hafiz Rahmat Khan (father-in-law of Ali Muhammad Khan's son, Sadullah Khan) on the partition of the Rohilla principality in 1764. However, the tract was hardly under the control of the Rohilla leader. The Pathans of Shahjahanpur resented the assumption of authority by their fellow tribesmen of Bareilly, Aonla and Budaun and in consequence extended their sympathies rather towards Avadh than to Hafiz Rahmat Khan and his confederates. The towns of Shahjahanpur and Tilhar were still left in the hands of the old Afghan families, while elsewhere the Gaur raja of Powayan and the Hindu landlords were left in almost independent possession of their estates.

In the succeeding years the Marathas often invaded Rohilkhand. To put an end to the growing raids of the Marathas, Hafiz Rahmat Khan sought assistance from Safdar Jang's son and successor, Shuja-ud-daula (the nawab vizir of Avadh). Eventually in June, 1772 a treaty was made between the Rohillas and Shuja-ud-daula (which the British commander-in-chief, Robert Barker, witnessed) by which the Rohillas agreed to pay Shuja-ud-daula Rs 40 lakhs on his obliging the Marathas to retire from Rohilkhand either by peace or war.²

In the winter of 1772-73, the Marathas once again invaded Rohilkhand, but on an intimidating movement of Shuja-ud-daula's army (which was accompanied by a detachment of the Company's troops) the Marathas hastily withdrew and soon afterwards were recalled to their bases in central India due to internal dissensions at Poona (now Pune). Shuja-ud-daula demanded the stipulated indemnity from the Rohillas and repeatedly wrote to Hafiz Rahmat Khan to pay Rs 40 lakhs.³ At the end of the year 1773, Shuja-ud-daula

1. Strachey, J. : *Hastings And the Rohilla War* (Oxford, 1892), pp. 16-17

2. Srivastava, A. L. : *Shuja-ud-daula*, Vol. II (Lahore, 1945), pp. 201-202; Moon, Penderel : *Warren Hastings and British India* (London, 1947), p. 124; Dodwell, H. H. (Ed.) : *The Cambridge History of India*, Vol. V, pp. 217-218

3. Dodwell, H. H. (Ed.) : *The Cambridge History of India*, Vol. V, p. 219

endeavoured to recover the money due from Hafiz Rahmat Khan whose refusal to pay the same was the immediate occasion of war. The nawab vizir obtained the assistance, not only of the English, but of several Rohilla chiefs. Hafiz Rahmat Khan at once started organizing resistance but he was ill-supported by the Rohillas, who concealed their treachery by arriving too late to be of any assistance in the war.

The Avadh forces assisted by a brigade of the Company's troops under Champion entered Shahjahanpur without opposition on the 20th of April, 1774. The allied army on crossing the Avadh border was joined by many landlords and Pathans of the neighbourhood.

In the meantime Hafiz Rahmat Khan had taken up a strong position near Miranpur Katra. His forces comprised 28,000 men with 60 guns and a great number of rockets.

The Avadh forces were determined to bring the Rohillas drawn to a battle. They, therefore, made a feint of attacking Pilibhit, where Hafiz Rahmat Khan's family was staying at that time. This had the desired effect. Hafiz Rahmat Khan marched out of his more secure position on 23rd April, 1774, only to find the enemy drawn up in battle array to receive him. The battle was inevitable in such circumstances though there was no time to follow any regular plan in the battle. The action taken by Avadh forces was a mere cannonade in which the English forces, with their superior guns and ammunition and better discipline, defeated Hafiz Rahmat Khan who was struck in the breast by a cannon shot and fell down.¹ With the loss of their leader the entire Rohilla army broke and fled, leaving 2,000 dead or wounded on the field. The valour of the Rohillas extorted the admiration of the British commander, Champion. They showed, he said, "great bravery and resolution.....they gave proofs of a good share of military knowledge by showing inclinations, to force our flanks at the same time and endeavouring to call off our attention by a brisk fire on our centres.....it is impossible to describe a more obstinate firmness of resolution than the enemy displayed".² From Miranpur Katra the victorious allies marched to Pilibhit and thence to Bareilly. The nawab vizir at once proclaimed annexation of Rohilkhand, and this step was confirmed by the treaty of Laldhang signed on the 7th of October, 1774.

1. Elliot, H. M. and Dowson, J. : *The History of India as told by its own Historians*, Vol. VIII (Allahabad, 1904), pp. 311—312

2. Dodwell, H. H., *op. cit.*, pp. 219-220

During the 27 years of Avadh rule there is little to narrate. The administrators were mere farmers of the revenue and their sole aim was to squeeze to the maximum as early as possible out of the peasantry, since a contract seldom lasted for more than two years at the most. The results were inevitable. The population decreased, large areas of cultivated land were abandoned and the territory was rapidly reduced to a deplorable condition.

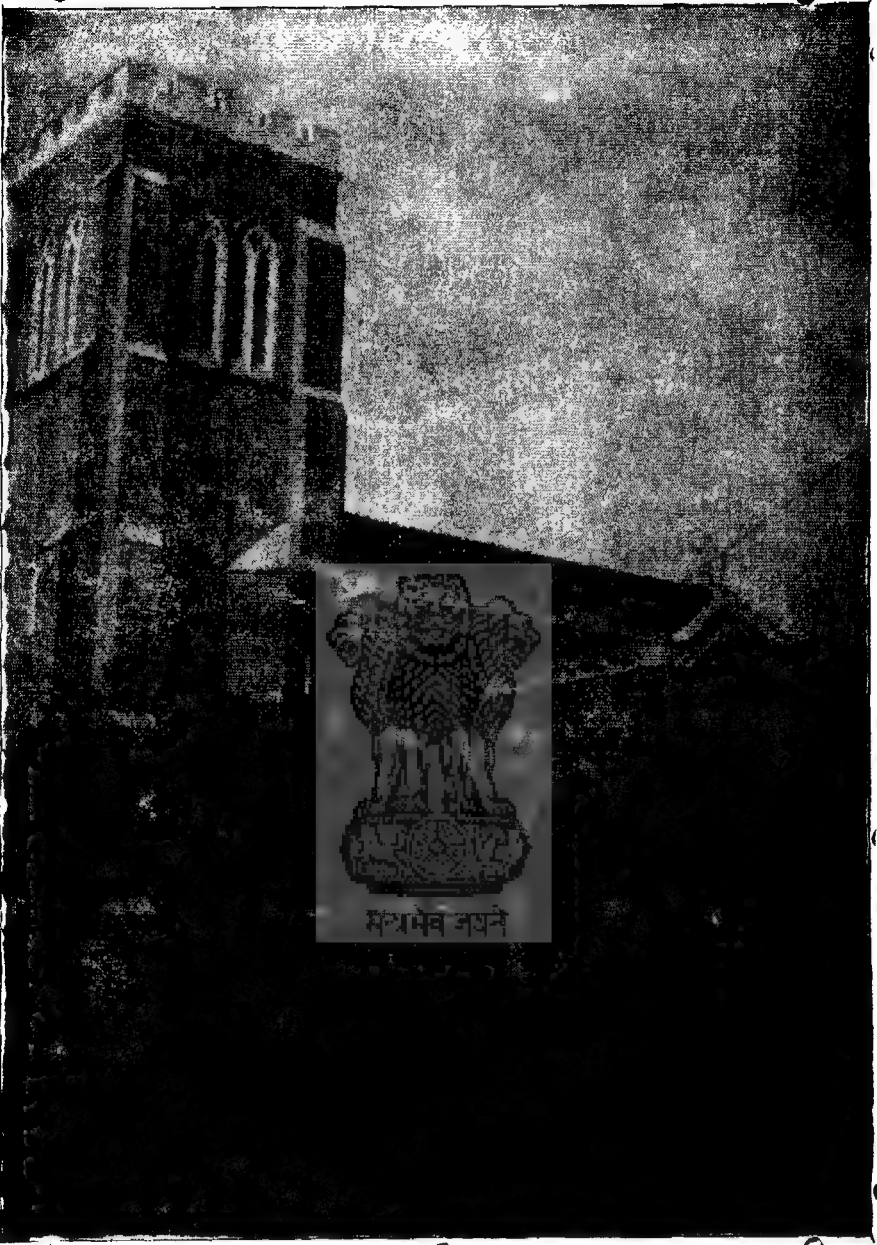
The rule of the nawad vizir, Saadat Ali Khan, came to a close with the treaty of Lucknow executed on the 10th of November, 1801.¹ Thereby Rohilkhand including Shahjahanpur was ceded to the East India Company in liquidation of the debts he had incurred on account of the maintenance of British forces and Shahjahanpur was included in the charge of the collector of Bareilly. No further event of importance occurred till the formation of the Shahjahanpur district in 1813-14, and thereafter the district remained in peace till the convulsion caused by the freedom struggle of 1857.

When the news of the outbreak of freedom struggle at Meerut reached Shahjahanpur towards the middle of May, 1857, the district was garrisoned by the 28th Indian Infantry and the civil charge was then held by Ricketts, the district magistrate. The military officers appear to have placed implicit confidence in the sepoys, although the general excitement among the men, fanned by the circulation of rumours about the greased cartridges and the adulteration of flour with bone-dust, afforded ground for anxiety.²

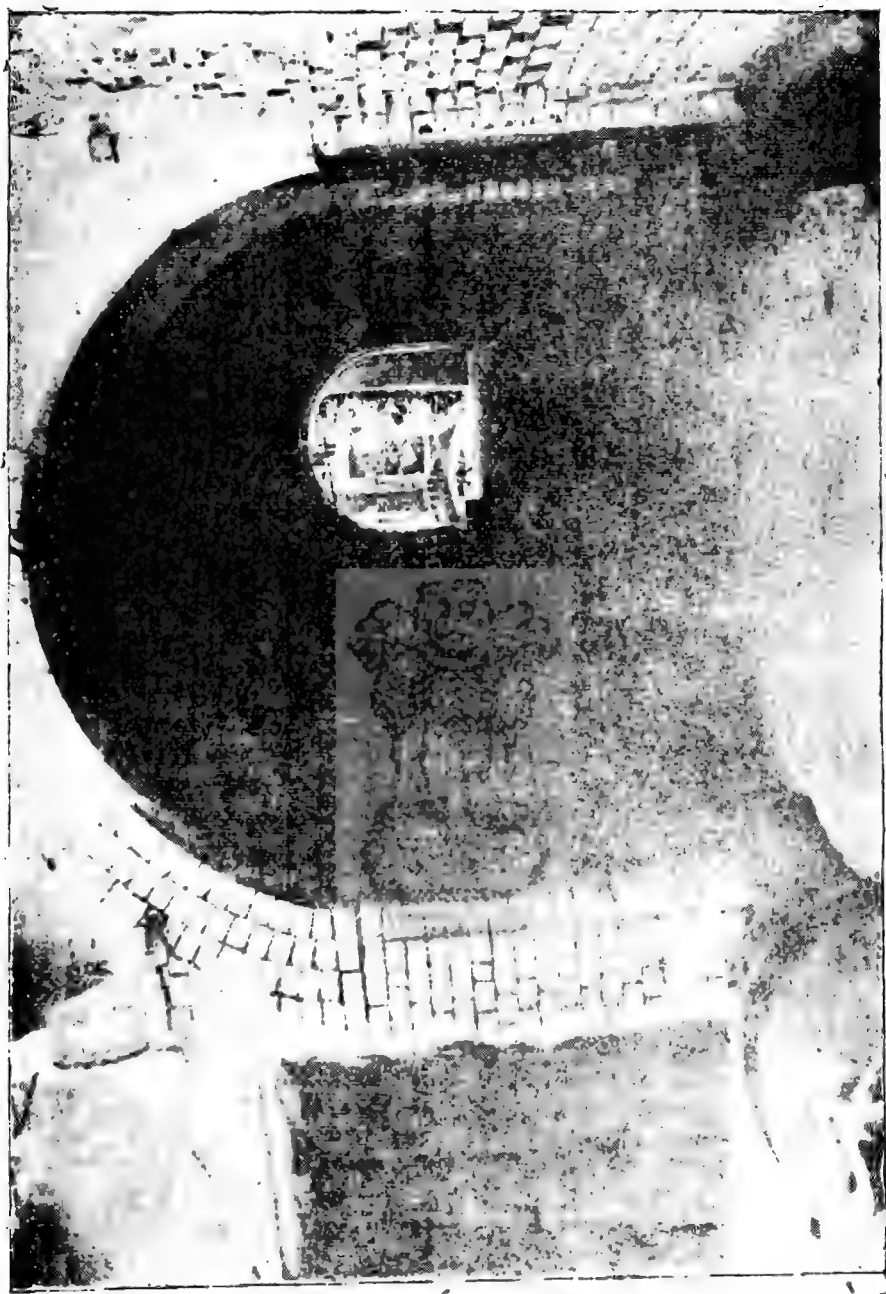
On the 25th of May, the first day of the Id festival some of the sepoys informed their officers that the local populace intended to plunder the treasury on the occasion of a large annual fair called Chinnaur-ka-mela, held near cantonment at a village of that name close to the burial ground of some of the principal Pathans. The officer commanding the regiment ordered the number of the station guards to be increased and the sentries to be doubled. This order, however, was treated by the sepoys as a slight and had an effect quite contrary to that intended, for the sepoys immediately caught hold of the treasury as a grievance and said that they were being punished for refusing to bite the greased cartridges. They were also annoyed at not being able to get to the fair, owing to their extra duty. Ricketts,

1. Dharma Bhanu : *History and Administration of the North-Western Provinces*, 1803—1858 (Agra, 1955), p. 75

2. Fisher, F. H., *op. cit.*, p. 147



Roman Catholic Church



**British Treasury Building, Patigali (Khazanchibagh), during
Freedom Struggle, 1857**

hearing this, recommended to the commanding officer for the cancellation of the obnoxious order. The number of sentries was not, however, reduced till after the fair. Two or three days previous to the outbreak of freedom struggle an event took place which plainly showed the state of feelings among the sepoys. A bill to the amount of Rs 2,000 was cashed and as the money was being taken out of the treasury, the sentry was heard saying "I will let the money go this time but no more shall be taken out".¹

Nothing further happened till the morning of the 31st May, when the regiment broke out and commenced an attack upon the Europeans assembled, at the time, in the Roman Catholic church. On that day Ricketts and most of the officers and their ladies were attending divine service, when, yelling six or seven sepoys armed with swords and clubs rushed into the building. Ricketts was wounded and dashed out, only to be cut down at a short distance from the door. The officers managed to drive out the assailants and close the doors, sending the women to the turret for their safety. The safety of the Europeans was, however, secured by the arrival of a number of sepoys faithful to them and the officers' servants bringing guns and other weapons. In the meantime several Europeans had lost their lives. Captain James the commanding officer, was shot on parade near the barracks on the same day while trying to reason with his men. Thereupon, Jenkins, the joint magistrate, strongly advised a retreat to Powayan. Accordingly the ladies and children were put in a carriage and a buggy and driven off to Powayan. After 3 km. they were joined by Jenkins. Raja Jagannath Singh of Powayan, who was afraid of the consequences of arranging reception of the fugitives insisted on the party leaving for Muhamdi (district Kheri). The raja was correct in his assessment that he was unable to protect the party in the event of an attack by the freedom fighters.² Accordingly he furnished an escort to the carriages and the party reached Muhamdi on the 1st June.

The sepoys, however, kept firing at them from some distance outside the church, but did not make any advance upon the small number of Europeans assembled. About this time, the sepoys went to the jail and let the prisoners loose. The government property was

1. *Ibid.*, p. 148

2. Ravi, S. A. A. (Ed) : *Freedom Struggle in Uttar Pradesh*, Vol. V, (Lucknow, 1980), pp. 197-198

said to have been chiefly plundered by the jail guard and *barkandazes*. After this, the sepoys proceeded to the house of treasurer for plundering.

On entering the town of Shahjahanpur the sepoys appointed Nizam Ali, who had formerly held that post, as kotwal and then set up Qadir Ali Khan and Ghulam Husain Khan as joint governors. The sepoys marched off in a body towards Bareilly, and were accompanied by a maulavi, named Sarfaraz Ali, resident of Gorakhpur. It appears that this man had arrived at Shahjahanpur 20 days before the outbreak of freedom struggle, and it is thought that he was chiefly instrumental in exciting the sepoys to join the struggle. He afterwards went to Delhi and was there appointed chief of the Ghazis.

The bungalows in cantonments were plundered, the people of the villages in the neighbourhood of Rosa factory, together with the freedom fighters from the town, were actively employed in plundering the works connected with the sugar refinery and rum factory of Carew and Co. which was afterwards set to fire. The two persons in charge of the factory—Carew and Brand—managed to escape from the place. Later on, Carew was recaptured and was put to death in Lucknow, while Brand died of fever in Nepal.¹

The news of the freedom struggle of Shahjahanpur reached Tilhar towards the evening of the 31st May and Ghulam Muhammad Khan, a prominent resident of the place at once caused the gangs of prisoners employed in constructing the government school building to be released. He then ejected the tahsildar, seized the police-station and destroyed the records.² At Miranpur Katra persons who joined the struggle were Faiz Muhammad Khan and Ghulam Khan, each of whom raised a regiment of infantry.³ In the Powayan tahsil the raja, who was guided by his brother, Baldeo Singh, endeavoured to raise a large force and collected the rents.⁴ At Jalalabad the tahsildar, Ahmadyar Khan, showed his sympathy with the fighters for freedom by releasing several prisoners.⁵

Left to their own devices, the freedom fighters began to make their own arrangements for some form of administration. They first

1. Chaudhuri, S. B. : *Civil Rebellion in the Indian Mutinies* (1857—1859), (Calcutta, 1957), p. 116

2. Fisher, F. H., *op. cit.*, p. 155

3. *Ibid.*

4. *Ibid.*

5. *Ibid.*, p. 153

appointed as many of the former servants of government as they found willing to join the service. In these arrangements they were assisted by Hamid Hasan Khan, deputy collector and Nizam Ali Khan, a former tahsildar, but there was little semblance of order and for a time plunder and looting had become very common.

When the news of the Bareilly outbreak reached Shahjahanpur a proclamation was issued by Qadir Ali Khan who led a procession through the town, declaring the overthrow of the British rule and assumption of the government by the Rohillas under Khan Bahadur Khan (grandson of Hafiz Rahmat Khan).

On the 8th of June the freedom fighters from Sitapur passed through the district on their way to Fatehgarh. After few days nawab Ghulam Qadir Khan who had hitherto been absent came back to Shahjahanpur with an order from Khan Bahadur Khan appointing him *nazim* of the district in succession of Qadir Ali Khan. His deputies were Nizam Ali Khan, Hamid Hasan Khan and Khan Ali Khan. The commander of the forces was Abdur-Rauf. The management of the Hindu landholders proved a difficult task and for reducing them nawab Ghulam Qadir Khan obtained assistance from Bareilly.

After the British troops regained possession of Fatehgarh, the nawab of Farrukhabad, together with Firoz Shah and Ismail Khan, came to Shahjahanpur, remained with Ghulam Qadir Khan for a few days and then proceeded to Bareilly. About the time of the capture of Lucknow Nana Saheb arrived in Shahjahanpur and encamped in the mango grove near the church for about ten days. From there Nana Saheb went to Bareilly and joined Khan Bahadur Khan.

During the short period of the rule by the freedom fighters many servants lately in government employ in this district were in the habit of occasionally sending information to Alexander, the commissioner, at Naini Tal and to other British officers at Agra and elsewhere. At the end of January, 1858, a messenger, carrying letters from Hamid Hasan Khan to the English authorities at Agra and elsewhere was seized by some of Ghulam Qadir Khan's people and this led to the murder of Hamid Hasan Khan. He and his brother were enticed to an interview on the assurances of safety and were then attacked. The latter escaped being severely wounded, but died a few days later, Hamid Hasan Khan, was cut down and killed on the spot and one of his attendants shared the same fate.

It was decided by the British Governor-General that the re-conquest of Rohilkhand should follow the re-capture of Lucknow. Accordingly three columns of soldiers converged upon Rohilkhand; starting from different points, one under General Penny was to cross the Ganga at Nadauli and march on Miranpur Katra in order to join General Walpole's division advancing from Lucknow; while Brigadier John Jones was to advance on Moradabad from Roorkee. Connected with these operations was the force stationed at Fatehgarh under Brigadier Seaton. The latter had ascertained that a large number of freedom fighters had collected on the borders of Farrukhabad and Shahjahanpur, and had occupied on the Bareilly road, three strong positions at Allahganj, Kankar and Bangaon.

Leaving Fatehgarh on the night of 6th April, 1858, Seaton coached Kankar (a small village south of Bangaon in Jalalabad tahsil), by day light, drove back the freedom fighters' cavalry and stormed the villages held by them, causing to them a loss of 250 lives. Seaton had only five men killed and seventeen wounded. His exploit had an important effect, for the freedom fighters hastily abandoned Allahganj, destroying the bridge over the Ramganga.

General Walpole's division was, however, afterwards opposed by the freedom fighters from Allahganj on the 28th of April, 1858, in which Nizam Ali Khan was defeated and slain, enabling the British force to occupy Jalalabad. The day before Walpole had been joined by Colin Campbell (commander-in-chief who later became Lord Clyde) and the combined force marched unopposed and reached Shahjahanpur on the 30th of the same month.

On the arrival of the British troops, the town of Shahjahanpur was evacuated by the freedom fighters who were then under the command of Maulvi Ahmad Ullah of Faizabad who was their most celebrated leader. Maulvi Ahmad Ullah finds a conspicuous place in the history of the freedom struggle of 1857. Though with no military training, he had the natural talents of a born leader and never missed a weak point in the enemy line and always strove to strike at it. It is said that Nana Saheb was also at Shahjahanpur and that he had directed the destruction of all the public buildings, so that the British might find no shelter on their arrival.

The British troops encamped at Azizganj, about a km. from Shahjahanpur and two companies were sent to occupy the fort which commanded the approaches to the town.

Meanwhile, on the 2nd of May, 1858 Colin Campbell proceeded towards Bareilly and had left Colonel Hale in charge of Shahjahanpur. The day after Colin Campbell's departure the freedom fighters advanced upon Shahjahanpur, headed by Maulvi Ahmad Ullah who had returned from the direction of Muhamdi. They compelled the British to retire within the jail, which had been rapidly fortified on the previous day and was close to Hale's camp. There the British force was beleaguered for nine days by the Maulvi, who had seized the old fort and placed eight guns in position against the jail.

Getting the news of events, Colin Campbell at once despatched a brigade under John Jones. Jones after facing the fighting sepoys coming across in his route, met Hale at the eastern outskirts of the town of Shahjahanpur where the freedom fighters were too strongly placed to be dislodged. From the 11th to the 15th of May the Maulvi waited for reinforcements and was joined by the Begam of Avadh, Prince Firoz Shah and some followers of Nana Saheb. On the 15th the Maulvi attacked the British entrenchments, but he failed to drive them from their position.

Meanwhile, Colin Campbell marched from Bareilly and reached Shahjahanpur on May 18, but was disappointed in his efforts of bringing the Maulvi to a decisive action. The Maulvi, however, took recourse to his former tactics and by dispersion prevented the immediate slaughter of his followers.

But the one result of Colin Campbell's campaign was the expulsion of the freedom fighters from the district. On the 25th of May, 1858, Thomas Seaton was appointed to command at Shahjahanpur and also watch the Avadh borders.

An important episode which occurred in the beginning of June, 1858, had a marked effect on the reoccupation of the district by the British. On the 5th of that month the Maulvi set out for Poyayan hoping to induce the raja to take part in a new league against the British. Reaching the fort, he was refused ingress; and on attempting to force an entrance he was shot dead by Baldeo Singh, who was encouraged by Lieutenant De Kantzow, at that moment the guest of the raja. His dead body was then captured by the raja and sent to Money, the magistrate at Shahjahanpur where it was displayed in the kotwali. The raja received a sum of Rs 50,000 which the British government had set as prize money on this valiant freedom fighter's head. Thus perished a great patriot, a great leader and a great man.

Even Englishmen have spoken of him as a man of great abilities, of undaunted courage, of stern determination and by far the best soldier amongst the freedom fighters.¹

From now onwards commenced an era of most violent repression and reprisals. There were 33 officials who had accepted jobs under the freedom fighters. One of these, Ahmadyar Khan was executed, but the rest appear to have escaped punishment under the British proclamation. Ghulam Qadir Khan died shortly after the reoccupation of the district by the British. Fazl Haqq, a resident of Shahjahanpur, who held the appointment of tahsildar in Aonla before the outbreak of freedom struggle, but accepted the post of *nazim* of Pilibhit under the freedom fighters did not again visit Shahjahanpur and was supposed to have died subsequently. The properties and estates belonging to the freedom fighters, responsible for the killing of the Europeans were forfeited by the government.

Thereafter, for the next 50 years or so the district remained peaceful. The chief events, apart from the settlements of land revenue, had been development of communications and expansion of trade and commerce. New roads and railway lines were constructed. The introduction of English education brought to the people of the district new social, political and scientific ideas of the western countries. In course of time a sizeable number of newly educated middle class people had appeared on the scene, who could not only speak English language but had a common stock of western literary ideas too. Various other developments took place during the period like reorganisation of the administration and establishment of post-offices, hospitals, English schools and canal system.

Towards the close of the 19th century the activities of Arya Samaj were spread to the district headquarters and some other towns. Its doctrine of monotheism, uplift of down trodden members of society, education of women and widow re-marriage were responsible for a great social upsurge all over the district, as elsewhere in the country.

The 20th century saw the expansion of nationalism in the country. In the district, the youth became restless, discontentment became rife and events moved rapidly. During the partition of Bengal (1905) the district did not lag behind in holding public meetings, organizing strikes and protests and creating awareness among the people of the

1. Rizvi, S. A. A. (Ed.) : *Freedom Struggle in Uttar Pradesh*, Vol. V, (Lucknow, 1960), p. 543

ruthlessness and oppression of foreign rule. Simultaneously, the movement for boycotting foreign goods also gained momentum. Even in the interior of the district the Swadeshi movement struck deep roots, when mass oaths to boycott foreign made articles and patronise Swadeshi goods were taken by the people.

The second decade of the present century saw the establishment of a Congress committee in the district. In 1920 the Non-Co-operation movement started by Mahatma Gandhi also spread here. It was an attempt to widen Swadeshi movement from a mere boycott of British goods to a boycott of every thing or institution that was British.¹ Local leaders addressed largely attended meetings at Shahjahanpur, Jalalabad, Baragaon, Tilhar, Miranpur Katra and other places. They explained the concept of Swadeshi and Swaraj to the people. A campaign was launched in the district for using indigenous goods, especially khadi or home-spun cloth. For the first time students, peasants and workers were drawn in large numbers into the fold of the movement and they boycotted the shops selling foreign goods. People were exhorted to leave government services and boycott the courts, and students were asked not to attend government schools. The district administration imposed ban on the sale of khadi, but foreign cloth worth thousands of rupees was almost daily reduced to ashes at public places. Towards the close of 1921 the movement gathered momentum, particularly on the eve of the visit of the Prince of Wales to India. During the Khilafat movement, the people of the district also shared the rejoicings of the Turkish victories with the rest of the country. The Chauri Chaura incident (in Gorakhpur district in 1922) caused Mahatma Gandhi to call off the Non-Co-operation movement in the whole country.

As soon as Gandhiji withdrew the agitation, the government swooped on him and put him behind the bars. It was time for the revolutionaries who had been lying low, to stir into action again. All convicts of the Mainpuri conspiracy case were pardoned after the British victory in the First World War. They included Ram Prasad 'Bismil', Raja Ram and others. Shahjahanpur became one of the centres of the revolutionary activities. Ram Prasad 'Bismil' organized a party and several youths joined him. One of these, Ashfaq-ullah Khan, a sturdy youth, was known to 'Bismil' since his childhood.

1. Majumdar, R. C. (Ed.): *The History and Culture of the Indian People, Struggles for Freedom*, Vol. XI, (Bombay, 1969), p. 339.

He was also a poet like 'Bismil'. Prem Kishen Khanna, the son of an engineer, was a useful member of the party and also helped procuring cartridges for pistols.¹

Large amount of money was urgently needed by the revolutionaries to purchase arms and ammunition. The party decided to loot the government cash. On 9th August, 1925, the famous Kakori conspiracy case, popularly known as the Kakori Kand, took place. Kakori is a small railway station on the Northern Railway, at a short distance from Lucknow. A number of armed revolutionaries stopped the 8-Down Moradabad-Lucknow passenger train between Kakori and Alamnagar by pulling the alarm chain and forcibly took away the cash from the guard's compartment. The police spread their net very wide and arrested 56 persons of the revolutionary parties in different parts of the country. The case attracted a good deal of attention and after protracted trial lasting for about two years, it ended in conviction. Ram Prasad 'Bismil', Roshan Singh and Ashfaq-ullah Khan associated with the district were sent to the gallows. Other prominent leaders of the party were awarded various terms of imprisonment.²

For the next few years, the district remained quiet. In 1928, the slump in the political activity and decadence in public life were suddenly roused by the government announcement of appointment of Simon Commission. It was appointed mainly to review the working and progress made by the central and provincial governments established under the Government of India Act of 1919 and to make the suggestion for realising the goal of self-government by the Indians. A complete hartal was observed in the district and demonstrators in large numbers marched in processions waving black flags and carrying 'Go Back Simon' banners.

Mahatma Gandhi made a hurricane tour of the whole of northern India in order to gather support for the newly launched Civil Disobedience movement. Between October 11 and November 11, 1929 he visited the district twice and addressed several largely attended public meetings and exhorted the people to boycott the foreign goods, abstain from intoxicants, uplift the Harijans, patronize khadi and join the Congress organization in large number.

1. Gupta, M. : *History of the Indian Revolutionary Movement*, (Bombay, 1972), p. 103

2. *Ibid.*, p. 546

In 1930 Civil Disobedience movement was started in Shahjahanpur, as in other parts of the country. The first phase of the movement was the violation of the Salt Act. Contraband salt making was started in June of the same year at Azizganj, Shahjahanpur and several other places in the district before large gatherings. On the news of Gandhiji's arrest, complete hartal was observed in Shahjahanpur and other towns in the district. Congress flags were taken out in processions to the accompaniment of patriotic songs. Boycott of foreign cloth and picketing of liquor shops continued daily at Shahjahanpur, Baragaon, Jalalabad, Tilhar and Powayan. Even temples were picketed to prevent worshippers wearing foreign clothes from obtaining entrance. Several spinning competitions were held in various parts of the district. Though there was a slight let-up in the activities due to Gandhi-Irwin Pact in 1931, yet the no-rent campaign took fresh impetus when pamphlets urging cultivators not to purchase attached property were circulated in the district. The local peasants refused to pay rent and several arrests were made. The Civil Disobedience movement continued unabated till May 1934, when Gandhiji withdrew it. During this movement more than 400 persons from the district were sent to jail or fined.

The people of the district participated in the elections for the provincial legislative assembly in 1937. In the course of the election campaign Govind Ballabh Pant addressed a meeting at Shahjahanpur. He spoke on the subject of freedom and asked Congressmen to establish mass contacts. The Congress candidates were returned with overwhelming support and the Congress won an absolute majority in the provincial assembly.

During the Second World War (1939—45) the local landlords were called upon to help the British government in the army recruitment programme and other war efforts. On January 22, 1940, Subhas Chandra Bose visited the district. He was greeted by large audience at Shahjahanpur. He explained the Congress attitude towards the War and ascribed country's poverty to the British rule and made an impassioned appeal advocating immediate mass struggle for achieving independence. He revisited the district on March 5, 1940 and received a purse of Rs 1,000.

On September 12, 1940, Kailash Nath Katju addressed a meeting at the district headquarters. He explained the importance of the tri-colour flag under which the whole country was to be united, and

requested the people to be ready for the movement about to be launched by the Congress. In 1941, the movement for Individual Satyagraha was launched, particularly against the War Fund and a number of people from the district courted arrest.

On August 8, 1942, the Indian National Congress passed a resolution calling upon the British to relinquish power and 'Quit India'. Nearly all local leaders were arrested, but their places continued to be filled up by other volunteers. The movement resulted in large-scale destruction of government property, uprooting of railway lines and disruption of telephone lines. Schools and colleges were closed for an indefinite period and anti-government literature was put into circulation. People from rural areas also joined the movement. The movement convinced the Britishers that they with all their might were hardly capable of continuing their rule in India for a longer period. The Congress leaders were released in 1946 and in the same year in the elections for the provincial legislature, the Congress gained majority. With the end of the War and particularly after the victory of the Labour Party in the elections in Britain, the independence of India became an immediate issue. The fight for freedom was henceforth waged not in the battle-field but round the council tables.

On August 15, 1947, the country was liberated from the alien rule and became free, but it was partitioned into two separate and independent units of India and Pakistan. Thousands and lakhs of Hindu refugees had to leave Pakistan and seek shelter in India. About 2,461 displaced persons from Pakistan came down to settle in the district. The day of Independence—August 15, is celebrated every year in this district, as elsewhere in the country, as a national festival with great rejoicing and enthusiasm.

On hearing the news of the assassination of Mahatma Gandhi on January 30, 1948, the whole district went into mourning. Markets, schools, offices and all government and other institutions, etc., were closed and several processions were taken out and meetings held to mourn the tragic and irreparable loss of the Father of the Nation. The district also remembers those of its people who participated in the struggle for freedom and lost their lives. Martyrs' Day is observed every year on every 30th January, the day of Mahatma Gandhi's assassination, when homage is paid to them all over the district, as elsewhere in the State.

With the enactment and adoption of the Constitution of India on January 26, 1950, India became a sovereign democratic republic. The day was celebrated in the district by taking out processions, holding meetings and hoisting national flag at government and other buildings. It is known as the Republic Day and is celebrated with enthusiasm every year all over the district.

On the occasion of the celebration of the silver jubilee year of Independence (1973), 144 persons of the district who had taken part in the freedom struggle, or their dependents in case they were no longer alive, were favoured with awards of inscribed *tamra patras* (copper-plates), placing on record the services rendered by them to the cause of the liberation of the country from foreign rule.



CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

POPULATION

Total Population

According to the census of 1971, the total population of the district was 12,86,104 (females 5,70,575) which was distributed over four tahsils. The statement below furnishes the tahsilwise statistics of population :

Tahsil	Population		
	Persons	Males	Females
Powayan	2,96,488	1,63,943	1,32,545
Tilhar	3,21,913	1,79,471	1,42,442
Shahjahanpur	4,11,947	2,27,363	1,84,584
Jalalabad	2,55,756	1,44,752	1,11,004
Total	12,86,104	7,15,529	5,70,575

The area of the district according to the Central Statistical Organisation was 4,581 sq. km. in 1971. The district occupied 33rd position in respect of area and 40th position in respect of population among the districts in the State.

The density of population in the district was 281 persons per sq. km. which was lower than the State average of 300 persons per sq. km. Among the tahsils, the most densely populated was Shahjahanpur with a density of 403 persons per sq. km. followed by Tilhar with 300, Jalalabad with 269 and Powayan with 191 persons per sq. km. In the rural and urban areas of the district, the density of population per sq. km. was 240 and 6,410 persons respectively.

The number of females per 1,000 males was 862 in 1901, 841 in 1911, 852 in 1921, 836 in 1931, 822 in 1941, 826 in 1951 and 1961 and 797 in 1971. It would thus appear that the sex ratio was lowest (797) during the decade 1961—71 and highest (862) during 1891—1901.

In 1971, the district had a lower sex ratio (797) than the State average of 879. The sex ratio of the district in rural and urban areas was 836 and 809 respectively. The Statement I at the end of the chapter gives figures of area and population of the district at the censuses of 1961 and 1971.

Growth of Population

First census of population of the district was carried out in 1847, but this was of a very unsatisfactory nature. It gave a total of 7,50,501 persons, with a density of 434 per sq. mile. The next enumeration took place in 1853, and was of a more elaborate character. The total population had by that time risen to 9,77,959 which gave an average density of 526 per sq. mile. There were six places with more than 5,000 inhabitants, including Palia, which is now in the Kheri district, as well as Shahjahanpur, Tilhar, Jalalabad, Powayan and Miranpur Katra.

The census of 1865 was of a far more ambitious nature, as it for the first time took into account age, caste, occupation and other details. This showed a decided increase, the total for the district being 9,35,978, of whom 4,31,478 were females. The average density was 542 per sq. mile. The towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants were the same as at the preceding enumeration.

The census of 1872 showed much advance on the preceding one, though its accuracy was to some extent discounted in after years by the imperfect nature of the instructions given to enumerators. The total on this occasion was 9,51,006, of whom 4,38,943 were females. The average density was 551 per sq. mile. There were then 2,180 towns and villages in the district, and of these 2,037 had less than a thousand inhabitants and 136 between one and five thousand.

The census in 1881 showed a marked decline in population, owing doubtless, to the effects of famine and several seasons of an abnormally unhealthy type. The total dropped to 8,56,946, of whom 3,96,882 were females. The average density was 496 per square mile. The population was distributed among 2,026 towns and villages, of which 1,905 had less than a thousand, and six more than five thousand inhabitants.

During the ensuing decade, the district enjoyed almost unbroken prosperity, and it was confidently expected that a large increase would be recorded. Such proved to be the case, for at the census of 1891,

the total had risen to 9,18,551 including 4,23,245 females. The average density was 532 per sq. mile. The number of towns and villages had increased to 2,037, of which 1,905 contained less than one thousand and six more than five thousand inhabitants.

The decennial growth of population in the district during the period 1901—1971 is given below :

Year	Persons	Decade variation	Percentage decade variation	Males	Females
1901	9,39,498	—	—	5,04,690	4,34,808
1911	9,63,234	+23,736	+2.53	5,23,198	4,40,036
1921	8,55,718	—1,07,516	—11.16	4,61,977	3,93,741
1931	9,04,890	+49,172	+5.75	4,92,960	4,11,930
1941	9,83,435	+78,545	+8.68	5,39,724	4,43,711
1951	10,04,435	+21,000	+2.14	5,50,208	4,54,227
1961	11,30,256	+1,25,821	+12.53	6,18,900	5,11,356
1971	12,86,104	+1,55,848	+13.79	7,15,529	5,70,575

Thus between 1911 and 1921 the population of the district recorded a decrease of 11.16 per cent, this decline being the result of the epidemic of plague at the time of the census of 1911 and the influenza epidemic of 1918-19. But since 1931 there has been a continuous increase in population. The lowest increase of 2.14 per cent was registered in the decade 1941—51, while the highest of 13.79 per cent was recorded in the decade of 1961—71 when the State average was, 19.78 per cent.

Emigration and Immigration

According to the census of 1961, about 89.4 per cent of the people were born in the district, 9.4 per cent in other district of the State, 0.7 in other parts of India and 0.2 in other countries. Among those from other countries, 2,461 had come from Pakistan, 229 from Nepal, 14 from U.S.A., 2 each from United Kingdom and New Zealand and 3,009 from other countries. About 84.5 per cent immigrants were from rural and 15.5 per cent from the urban areas. Among them 22.4 per cent were males and 77.6 per cent were females. The large percentage of females is explained by migration after marriage.

Of the immigrants from adjacent States, 6,089 persons (males 3,538, females 2,551) were from Punjab, 287 persons (males 143, females 144) from Bihar, 271 persons (males 144, females 127) from Delhi, 221 persons (males 105, females 116) from Madhya Pradesh, and 133 persons (males 90, females 43) from Rajasthan. The number of

immigrants from other districts of the State is 1,06,765 (males 25,483, females 81,282).

It would not be incorrect to presume that a number of persons migrated from the district to other parts of the State or country or abroad for purposes of education, employment, trade or business or on account of marriage, but the figures of such emigrants are not available.

Rural/Urban Distribution of Population

At the census of 1971, the district comprised the four tahsils of Powayan, Tilhar, Shahjahanpur and Jalalabad, and had five towns, two of which namely Tilhar and Shahjahanpur (the later also had a cantonment area) were being administered as municipalities, Powayan and Jalalabad as town areas and railway settlement area of Rosa as notified area. There were 2,188 inhabited, and 338 uninhabited villages in the district. The tahsilwise distribution of population and the number of villages and towns at the census of 1971 are given below :

Tahsil Rural/Urban	No. of villages		No. of towns	Population		
	Unin- habited	In- habited		Persons	Males	Females
Powayan tahsil	101	709	1	2,96,488	1,63,943	1,32,545
Powayan (rural)	101	709	—	2,87,555	1,59,073	1,28,482
Powayan (town area)	—	—	1	8,933	4,870	4,063
Tilhar tahsil	82	547	1	3,21,913	1,79,471	1,42,442
Tilhar (rural)	82	547	—	2,95,076	1,65,272	1,29,804
Tilhar (municipal board)	—	—	1	26,837	14,199	12,638
Shahjahanpur tahsil	80	460	3	4,11,947	2,27,363	1,84,584
Shahjahanpur (rural)	80	460	—	2,62,796	1,47,037	1,15,759
Shahjahanpur (municipal board)	—	—	1	1,35,604	72,682	62,922
Shahjahanpur (Cantonment)	—	—	1	8,461	4,792	3,669
Railway settlement Rosa (notified area)	—	—	1	5,086	2,852	2,234
Jalalabad tahsil	75	372	1	2,55,756	1,44,752	1,11,004
Jalalabad (rural)	75	372	—	2,44,655	1,38,831	1,05,824
Jalalabad (town area)	—	—	1	11,101	5,921	5,180

Distribution of Rural Population

The pattern of rural population is revealed in the frequency distribution of villages on the basis of population. The census of 1971, reveals this distribution as under:

Range of population	No. of villages	Persons	Males	Females
Less than 200	475	51,259	29,217	22,042
200—499	845	2,84,208	1,59,098	1,25,110
500—999	543	3,82,019	2,13,979	1,68,040
1000—1999	181	2,37,780	1,32,755	1,05,025
2000—4999	41	1,12,215	62,803	49,412
5000—9999	2	12,365	6,827	5,538
10,000 and above	1	10,236	5,534	4,702
Total	2,088	10,90,082	6,10,213	4,79,869

Of the 2,088 inhabited villages, 1,320 fall in the group with population below 500 ; 724 in the 500 and 1,999 group ; 44 in the 2,000 and above group. There is more concentration of population in medium-size villages.

The towns of the district exhibit semi-urban characteristics. In fact they present a spectacle of the old order in the midst of developing urbanisation. In the absence of sufficient industrialisation and white-collar occupations, a large number of urban population is engaged in trade, business, crafts and allied occupations and a small number in agriculture. The well-educated and able-bodied persons hasten to find better jobs and avenues of better life in the towns. The people in general, particularly in the urban areas seem to be coming under the influence of modern materialistic ideas about life.

The number of inhabited villages increased from 2,048 in 1961 to 2,088 in 1971. The number of village varies from decade to decade due to various circumstances, such as merger of small hamlets with adjacent big hamlets and forming separate villages or conversion of uninhabited villages into inhabited villages. The number of uninhabited villages had decreased from 378 in 1961 to 338 in 1971.

Displaced Persons

As a result of partition of the country in 1947, some Muslim families from the district migrated to Pakistan, and some Hindu families came over from Sindh, Punjab (West) to this district. The total number of such migrants to the district, according to 1961 census was 2,461. They have all settled down in different trades and

avocations. In order to rehabilitate them the government has extended various facilities including financial aid to establish new trade and business, technical and vocational trainings and special consideration in recruitment to public services.

LANGUAGE

In 1971, about two dozen languages were being spoken in the district. The Hindi-speaking people were the largest in number, nearly 86.92 per cent of the total. Urdu was spoken by 11.23 per cent and Punjabi, Sindhi, Bengali and several other languages shared the remaining percentage.

The common Hindi dialect in vogue in the district is known as Kannaujia, which is spoken in the adjoining districts of Pilibhit, Hardoi and Farrukhabad. There is naturally no hard and fast line of demarcation between this Kannaujia and the western Hindi dialect of Budaun and Bareilly. Roughly speaking, it may be taken that throughout the greater part of the rural tracts, the speech of the uneducated people corresponds more closely to the Kannaujia form than to any other, while in towns and particularly among the Muslims the usual language is Hindustani.

Script

The Devanagri is used for the Hindi and allied languages, the Persian for the Urdu, and the Gurmukhi for the Punjabi. In the Indian system of book-keeping followed by the traditional businessmen, the Muriya is still in vogue.

RELIGION AND CASTE

In 1971, people were found to profess different religions to the following extent :

Religion	Followers	Males	Females
Hinduism	10,60,914	5,94,672	4,66,242
Islam	2,07,618	1,11,083	96,535
Sikhism	15,484	8,442	7,042
Christianity	1,582	1,048	534
Buddhism	406	234	172
Jainism	77	37	40
Religion not stated	23	13	10
Total	12,86,104	7,15,529	5,70,575

Principle Communities

Hindus.—Hindus constitute about 82 per cent of the population. The pattern of society among the Hindus of this district, as elsewhere, is based on the traditional four-fold caste system, the four principal classifications being the Brahmana, the Kshatriya, the Vaish and the Shudra. Brahmanas constituted the learned, literary class, qualified to direct religious ceremonies and to teach and interpret sacred scriptures. The business of Kshatriyas was war and government with the help of Brahmana ministers. Vaishs constituted tradesmen and agriculturists. Shudras, the common folk, were expected to be content with doing service to their betters. Each caste was subsequently subdivided into several subcastes, so much so that sometimes it remains only for arbitrary judgement to decide as to which caste a particular subcaste belongs. There are groups like Kayasthas and Khattris which have in course of time acquired the status of castes with further subdivisions into subcastes.

The ancient basis of the four-fold classification of the Hindus, being occupation-oriented, has in the course of time yielded place to the birth-basis, i.e. a person acquires the caste into which he is born. The close relationship of occupation and caste is still noticeable among certain groups or castes in the district.

The Vaishs are, for example, largely engaged in trade, commerce, agriculture and money-lending. The Yadavas, and the Kurmis, who are distributed all over the district, constitute the principal cultivating castes. The Koris, Chamars and Doms (now described as Harijans) are largely labourers, both agricultural and non-agricultural. Some of them also hold land as tenants. Mostly they are engaged in traditional crafts like leather tanning, shoemaking and the like. The Gadarias follow their traditional avocation of herding sheep and goats, though many have taken to cultivation with moderate success. The other occupational castes are gold-smiths, black-smiths, copper-smiths, carpenters, traders, cultivators, fishermen, watermen, barbers, potters, earth diggers and stone cutters. Under the spread of education and impact of modern and fast economic life, the occupation basis of castes is fast losing ground.

In this district, as elsewhere in the State, the people belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes, better known as Harijans, comprised the lowest stratum of society. But on account of concessions and facilities given to them by the government after

the Independence in vocational, educational, economic, industrial and other fields, large number of them have been able to improve their lot.

The distribution of persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the district in 1971 is given below :

Tahsil	Scheduled Castes			Scheduled Tribes		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Powayan	67,816	37,224	30,592	10	6	4
Tilhar	47,544	26,925	20,619	23	14	9
Shahjahanpur	60,832	34,024	26,808	1,412	773	639
Jalalabad	33,437	19,194	14,243	10	6	4
Total	2,09,629	1,17,367	92,262	1,455	799	656

Muslims—At the 1971 census about 16 per cent of the people of the district were found professing the Islamic faith. They are numerically next to the Hindus and evenly distributed. The majority of the Muslims belong to the Sunni sect, though there are some Shias also. The two important castes among them are the Sheikhs and Pathans. The Pathans outnumber the others. More than half of them belong to the Shahjahanpur tahsil. There are many clans among the Pathans of the district. Ghorī and Yusufzai are the strongest, the former in Shahjahanpur and Powayan, and the latter in Tilhar. Then came the Dilazak, mostly in Tilhar and Shahjahanpur. After these follow the Bangash, chiefly in Jalalabad, the Muhammadzai, mainly in Shahjahanpur, the Tarins in Shahjahanpur and the Warakzais in Jalalabad.

The Sheikhs belong to many subdivisions, the chief being Qureshi, Siddiqi, Usmani and Faruqi. Nearly half of them are concentrated in Shahjahanpur tahsil and bulk of the remainder in Tilhar and Jalalabad tahsils.

Some of the important occupational castes among the Muslims are the Darzis, Hajjans, Nais, Manihars or glass-workers, Qassabs or butchers, Bhatiaras or inn-keepers, Chhipis or cotton-printers, Kunjras, Bhangis, etc.

Sikhs—In 1971, there were 15,484 Sikhs (8,442 males and 7,042 females). They are mostly immigrants from Pakistan after 1947. Most of them are found in urban areas and are generally engaged in various trades and businesses, though some of them are also found in public services.

Christians—The Christians numbered 1,582 including 534 females. Generally they belong to Roman Catholic and Protestant sects. They are found in all parts of the district. Most of them are in public services.

Buddhists—In 1971, the number of Buddhists in the district was 406 including 172 females.

Jains—In 1971, there were 77 jains in the district, out of whom 40 were females. They are mostly well-to-do merchants.

Religious Beliefs and Practices

Hindus—The term Hinduism is elastic and includes a number of sects and cults, allied but different in many important respects. The Hindus of the district practise Hinduism which is a collection of diverse beliefs and practices ranging from polytheism to absolute monism and the identification of the *Atman* (individual soul) with the ultimate reality (*Parmatma*). It includes the worship of village tutelary and other deities in their various aspects, spirits and powers of natural phenomena and cosmic forces (often conceived as personal beings in the form of gods and goddesses) the chief being Siva and Vishnu and their respective consorts, Parvati and Lakshmi, Rama and his consort Sita, Hanuman, Shakti (in her different forms), Ganga, Yamuna, Krishna, Radha and Ganesha. Other gods and goddesses are also worshipped as well as spirits of natural Phenomena such as streams, trees, rocks and *nagas* (snakes), the sun, moon, rain, fire and wind gods, etc. Thus from the crudest forms of animism to the realisation of the ultimate reality, the Hindu religion touches the whole gamut of religious experience. Generally every household has a place for worship where the idols of the chosen deity are installed and worshipped. Worship in temples is not obligatory, but many Hindus visit them either daily or on festivals and special occasions. At times *kathas* (recitations) from the *Bhagwat Gita*, the *Ramcharitmanasa* and other religious texts or *kirtans* (collective singing of devotional songs) are arranged both in temples and homes. Many Hindus worship the snake on Naga Panchami (the fifth day of the bright fortnight of Sravana). The *pipal* (*Ficus religiosa*) trees are also sacred to them and they have a traditional reverence for the *tulsi* plant (*Ocimum sanctum*) which is to be found in nearly every home, usually at an elevated place. The illiterate and backward sections of the community also put their faith in superstitions, taboos, witch-crafts and magic and believe in ghosts and spirits

(which are feared and propitiated). Superstition also dominates the lives of many Hindus (particularly in the rural areas) and they believe in the auspiciousness or otherwise of a particular time, period or phenomenon.

There are a number of temples and places of Hindu worship in the district, the prominent being the temple at Jalalabad, Kamaria, the bathing ghats and the temple with a lingum and the ancient status of Kali at Mati and brick temple with an immense lingam in village Mahadeva.

Muslims—The Muslims of the district believe, as do their co-religionists elsewhere in the State, that there is one God and that Muhammad is his prophet. Islam enjoins five duties upon its followers—the recitation of *Kalma* (an expression of faith in God and the prophet Muhammad); the offering of *namaz* (prayers) five times a day (individually or collectively), preferably in a mosque; *roza* (fasting in the month of *Ramadan*); hajj to Mucca; and *zakat* (contributions in cash or kind for charitable purposes).

The two main sects of the Muslims are the Sunni and the Shia, the followers of the former conforming to the Sunnat (the traditional or orthodox view) from which term the sect gets its name.

There are many mosques and *imambaras* in the district, the more important being the mosque in Jalalabad and the mosque of Bahadur Khan in Shahjahanpur.

Sikhs—Sikhism is a monotheistic religion disavouring idolatry and making no distinction of caste among its followers. It prescribes the wearing by each adherent of a comb, an iron *kara* (bangle), a dagger and a pair of short drawers, and prohibits the cutting of the hair of the body. The Sikhs attend congregational prayers in their places of worship, the *gurudwaras*, and celebrate the birth anniversaries of their *gurus* when their holy book, the *Granth Sahab* is taken out in procession.

Christians—The Christians believe in one God, His only son, Jesus Christ, the saviour of mankind, the Holy spirit, the resurrection of the dead and the life everlasting. The *Bible* is their holy book which contains two main sections, the *Old Testament* and the *New Testament*.

Buddhist—The main tenet of Buddhism is that while there is woe in the world, the eight-fold middle path of righteousness based

on right belief, right thought, right speech, right action, right means of livelihood, right endeavour, right recollection and right meditation leads to the end of sorrow and to the attainment of peace, enlightenment and *Nirvana*.

Jains—The Jains (followers of the Jians or conquerors) believe in the *triratna* (three gems) right faith, right knowledge and right conduct, which constitute the path of *moksha* (liberation). According to Jainism, the universe has had no beginning and will have no end and no creator is necessary to explain the existence as of the cosmos. They believe in *ahimsa* and worship in their temples, where the images of their *tirthankaras* or Jinas are installed.

Manners and Customs

Though the general pattern of life of all the communities is becoming increasingly uniform under the socio-economic stresses of modern living, nevertheless each community has its own particular way of life, distinguished by varying manners and customs. Among the Hindus some of the important ceremonies are *namkaran* (naming of the child), *mundan* (the first tonsure of the hair), *upanayana* (sacred thread ceremony), *vivah* (marriage ceremony) and *antyeshti* (death ceremony). Some of the important ceremonies of Muslims are *akika*, a sacrifice which has two parts—the shaving of the child's head and the killing of one or two goats, *bismillah* which consists of taking the name of God, *khatna* (circumcision), *nikah* (marriage) and the ceremony at the time of death.

Intercaste Relations—As in other parts of the country, inter-caste relations were very rigid nearly a generation ago. The members of different castes and subcastes lived in watertight compartments, where such matters as inter-caste dining and inter-caste marriages were concerned. Gradually, particularly after the Independence, changes have taken place, breaking down the old orthodoxy. Inter-caste dining is no longer looked upon with disapproval by the Hindus in the district, more so in towns, though the restriction still persists in the rural areas. Inter-caste marriages take place very occasionally and many of the traditional restrictions regarding marriage based on caste are gradually disappearing as a result of the spread of education, the influence of western culture, the equality of the sexes and the gradual removal of disabilities from which women suffered in the past.

NEW RELIGIOUS LEADERS AND MOVEMENTS

Arya Samaj—The Arya Samaj is a protestant and reforming movement within the Hindu religion. It was founded in 1869, by (Swami) Dayanand Saraswati. In 1901, the number of Arya Samajists was 1,646. Since then the sect has made considerable progress so that at the census of 1951 the number increased to 3,845. The Arya Samaj philosophy is monotheistic and professes to be a reversion to the original tenets as given in the *Vedas*. The objective of the Arya Samaj is to reform and free Hinduism from rigid rituals and customs and the prevarications and distortions that exist in it. It condemns idolatry, *shraddha* and early marriage, is opposed to the rigid caste system, and gives women a higher status in social life than do the orthodox Hindus.

Randhasoami—There are in the district some followers of the Radhasoami sect also which is an offshoot of the *bhakti* cult of Hinduism but is appreciably different from that religion. It is open to people belonging to any caste, religion or walk of life. The *Satsangis* (followers of the *sanga* or order) believe that the true name of the supreme being is Radhasoami, that the universe has three divisions—the spiritual, the spiritual-material and the material-spiritual, and that the four essentials of religion are *sat guru* (the true teacher), *sat shabad* (the true word) *satsang* (the true order or association) and *sat anurag* (true love).

Sahaj Marg—This sect has also a considerable following at Shahjahanpur. The headquarters of the Sahaj Marg are situated at Shahjahanpur, though it has its followers all over the world. It was founded by Sri Ram Krishna of Fatehgarh. The system lays down a method of meditation which is very much akin to the *Raj Yoga* system. But it differs from *Raj Yoga*, since it does not consider physical yogic exercises and breath control etc., as primary steps to begin meditation. The system teaches steady meditation at heart without too much suppressing or controlling other streams of thought, which die a natural death if they are treated as unwanted guests.

SOCIAL LIFE

Property and Inheritance

The laws governing succession and inheritance of property are the same in the district as in other parts of the State. By the passing of the U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act,

1950 (Act no. 1 of 1951) and its enforcement in the district on July 1, 1952, the succession to and partition of agricultural holdings and other properties, which were previously governed by the personal law of the individual concerned, came to be regulated by the new Act. Among the Hindus, the inheritance of property other than agricultural land, is determined according to the provisions of the Hindu Succession Act, 1956, which brought about important changes in the law of succession for the Hindus, Jains and Sikhs enabling a female heir to succeed to coparcenary property. The Muslims are governed by their personal law of succession and inheritance and the Christians by the Indian Succession Act of 1925.

Joint Family—The institution of the joint family, which has been a characteristic feature of Hindu society from ancient times, is breaking down owing to economic and social factors, the impact of modern ideas and the individualistic outlook of the younger generation. The rapid growth of industries and the consequent urbanisation, the increasing demand for labour and the prospects of better wages in the towns have also accelerated the disintegration of the joint family system.

Division of property during the life time of the patriarch is becoming a very common feature.

MARRIAGES AND MORALS

The following statement shows the distribution of the population of the district according to marital status in various age groups in 1971 :

Age group	Total population	Unmarried		Married		Widowed		Divorced or separated		Unspecified	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
0—9	3,59,145	1,90,250	1,68,895	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
10—14	1,45,927	83,780	49,458	2,600	9,119	—	70	30	40	215	615
15—19	1,02,433	41,395	9,886	17,881	32,571	335	205	40	20	70	30
20—24	95,824	28,633	1,759	26,935	42,177	645	475	50	40	70	40
5—29	1,00,787	14,580	636	38,477	44,519	1,490	715	240	50	40	40
0—34	93,795	10,399	185	38,313	41,059	2,449	1,010	200	60	70	50
35—39	81,984	5,645	90	36,978	34,891	2,579	1,561	135	45	30	10
40—44	78,165	4,657	80	36,024	29,372	4,053	3,724	150	20	45	40
45—49	56,207	3,106	10	26,330	19,830	3,387	3,429	60	20	25	10
50—54	56,752	3,117	30	25,295	14,686	4,943	8,526	95	—	35	25
55—59	31,576	1,881	15	13,590	8,960	3,127	3,818	45	35	65	40
60—64	39,188	2,090	20	15,302	6,456	4,320	10,335	50	10	85	20
65—69	14,920	980	15	5,189	2,637	1,980	3,963	30	10	60	20
70—74	29,300	1,435	—	9,749	2,895	4,484	10,648	50	—	20	20
Age not stated	121	30	—	20	—	—	—	—	—	71	—
Total	12,86,104	3,86,978	2,31,079	2,92,683	2,89,207	33,722	48,979	1,175	350	901	960

Hindus—The Hindus have both endogamous and exogamous marriage rules. The community is divided into castes and sub-castes which are usually endogamous groups. Among the Hindus of the district marriage is a sacrament and its rites are prescribed in the *Shastras* (sacred texts) and, to some extent, by customs and traditions. Some variations in the performance of the different rites may occur from caste to caste or even from family to family within a caste but the important ceremonies of *bhanwar* or *saptpadi* (literally 7 steps) and *kanyadan* (giving away of the girl) are essentials of every marriage ceremony.

The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, declared polygamy to be illegal among the Hindus, the term 'Hindu' including Sikhs and Jains in the context. The marital ages have recently been raised for the bridegroom from 18 years to 21 years and for the bride from 15 years to 18 years after the enforcement of the Child Marriage Restraint (Amendment) Act, 1978. The customary restrictions generally observed by the people of the district, such as those on marriages between persons of the same *gotra* (eponymous group descended from a common ancestor in the male line of descent) have been abolished with the passing of the new Act of 1955. Now even inter-caste and inter-subcaste marriages among persons of the same *gotra* have begun to take place. Both law and custom prohibit *sapinda* (literally having the same *pinda* or funeral cake, an agnate within seven generations) marriages. The restrictions regarding endogamic marriages are not as rigid as they were in the past. Marriage by registration, which is permissible by law, is not very common here. Generally marriages are arranged by the parents, the bride's side approaching the bridegroom's directly or through intermediaries. The date and time of the marriage are fixed in consultation with a priest (Brahmana) who makes the astrological calculations regarding the auspiciousness or otherwise of a particular marriage.

The *sagai* or engagement is performed by the bride's party. The next ceremony is the *tika* (betrothal) when cash, gifts, clothes and a little symbolic rice are sent in a metal tray by the bride's party to the bridegroom. On the day fixed for the marriage, the bridegroom goes to the house of the bride with the *barat* (marriage party) and is received at the main entrance of the house, where the ceremony of *dwarpuja* (worship at the door) is performed. The important stages of the marriage ceremony (which is generally performed on the date

and time declared by the priest and always in the presence of relatives and guests) are *kanyadan* (giving away of the girl) by her father and in his absence by the nearest male relative) *bhanwar* or *saptpadi* (taking seven steps by the bride and bridegroom round the sacred fire) and the repetition of the marriage vows by them. The ceremony of *vida* (departure) then takes place, the *barat* returning with the bride to the bridegroom's house.

Among the members of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes also marriage is considered to be a sacred rite and at times the ceremony (known as *paipuja* or *dola*) takes place at the bridegroom's house. The observance of the usual rites is not considered essential among certain of these castes and only one or more of the following formalities are observed : applying *sindur* (mercury oxide or vermilion powder) in the parting of the bride's hair, the giving away of a gift by the bridegroom to the bride and in some cases the making of a declaration before the caste panchayat concerned by the bride of her willingness to accept the bridegroom, the reciting of *kathas* and the tying of one end of the bride's garment to the bridegroom's.

Muslims—Islam permits polygamy to the extent of having four wives at a time. The Muslim marriage is a civil contract for the legalisation and procreation of children and every Muslim of sound mind who has attained puberty, may enter into such a contract but a marriage without the consent of either party is void. The amount of *mehr* (dower) may be fixed before or at the time or even after the marriage. The essentials of the marriage are a proposal by or on behalf of one of the parties (usually made by the bridegroom's party) and the acceptance by or on behalf of the other in the presence and hearing of two men or one man and two women witnesses who must be sane and adult Muslims. The proposal and acceptance are to be expressed at one meeting. The guardian of a minor can enter into a marriage contract on behalf of the ward. According to Shia law the presence of witness is not necessary in any matter regarding marriage. After the settlement of the marriage, the *sagai* or *mangni* (asking for the hand of the bride) takes place. On the date fixed, the bridegroom and his party (*barat*) go to the house of the bride and her *vakil* or agent (who is usually an elderly relative) in the presence of two witnesses, obtains the bride's and the bridegroom's consent to contracting the marriage and informs

their parents accordingly. The marriage ceremony (*nikah*) is performed in the presence of witnesses by the *qazi* who reads the *khutbah*, after which the marriage ceremony ends. Among the Shias, the *mujtahid* performs the marriage instead of the *qazi*. Generally the *rukhsati* or *vida* (departure) takes place immediately after the marriage, the bride accompanying the bridegroom to his place.

Christians—According to the Child Marriage Restraint (Amendment) Act, 1978, minimum marital ages have been fixed for bridegroom to 21 years and for the bride to 18 years. The marriage customs of the adherents of different denominations usually follow the same general pattern in the district and elsewhere. The marriage may be arranged by the parties concerned or by their relatives. The period of engagement which precedes the marriage may be long or short. The banns are published three times (once every week) by the priest in the Church where the marriage is to be solemnised, to give opportunities for raising objections. On the date fixed the bride and the bridegroom are married in church, the ceremony being performed by the priest. The essential parts of the ceremony are the giving away of the bride by the father (or other relative or friend), the repeating aloud after the priest of the marriage vows by the bride and the bridegroom, the placing of a ring by the bridegroom on the third finger of the bride's left hand (sometimes the bride and the bridegroom exchange rings on this occasion) the pronouncement of the couple as husband and wife by the priest and the signing of the marriage register by the couple and their witnesses. The wedding festivities then usually follow at the bride's house.

Dowry—With the passing of the Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961, the giving and accepting of dowry (which was previously customary in the district as elsewhere in the State) became illegal, though in practice the custom still obtains in one form or the other.

Civil Marriage—The Special Marriage Act, 1954, provides for marriages to be performed and registered by the district marriage officer appointed by the government for the purpose. The Act enjoins upon the parties the giving of one month's notice before the proposed date of marriage to the marriage officer indicating their intention to marry. The notice of marriage is exhibited on the notice board of the office of the deputy commissioner for the raising of objections, if any. After the expiry of the period of notice, if no valid objection is raised, the marriage is performed and

registered. The parties sign the register and receive the marriage certificate from the marriage officer. It appears such marriages have not become popular in the district as no civil marriage was registered in the district in recent years.

Widow Marriage—Under the provisions of the Hindu Widow Re-Marriage Act, 1856, a widow can marry again. Even before that, widow marriages were performed by the Arya Samaj according to Vedic rites. But the incidence of such marriages is rare, particularly among the higher castes. Among the Scheduled Castes and some of the Other Backward Classes, widow marriage is a common feature. Orthodox people, to whichever community they may belong, still do not favour widow marriage.

Divorce—Among the Hindus the dissolution of marriage was not permissible, except among the Scheduled Castes, and that only with the sanction of their caste panchayats. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, has made divorce legal under certain conditions and circumstances. The Muslim law permits the husband to divorce the wife on payment of the *mehr*. The Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act, 1939, also gives, under certain conditions, the right to the wife to claim the dissolution of her marriage. The Indian Divorce Act, 1869, is applicable to all civil marriages and generally to the Christians. Nevertheless, among the higher castes instances of divorce are very rare. During the period 1973 to 1977 only 99 cases of divorce, 51 by men and 48 by women, were referred to the courts in the district. Divorce was permitted only in 68 cases, 9 each in 1973 and 1974, 8 and 18 in 1975 and 1976 respectively and 24 in 1977.

Economic Dependence of Women and Their Place in Society

Women occupied a high position in Hindu society in ancient times. The husband who cast off his faithful wife was punished by the king. The wife, likewise, was supposed to honour her husband as a god and to remain faithful to him. The status of women began to decline after the Muslim invasions of the country, when seclusion or purdah came into vogue as a measure of safety and protection for women. The practice continued particularly among the Rajput chiefs and the zamindars as a mark of social prestige and their women remained confined to the four walls of their homes. The seclusion was stricter in the villages than in the towns and more common among the Muslims than among the Hindus. In the last few decades, with the

spread of education among women and their taking up employment outside the home, a marked change in their economic status has occurred. Nevertheless the number of economically independent women is very small and in most cases they still continue to be dependent on men. The introduction of universal adult suffrage, increasing education facilities for women and the special interest the government is taking for the advancement of women, are some of the factors contributing to the uplift of women as useful members of society.

Among the poorer sections women work in large numbers as daily labourers (agricultural and industrial) and cases of the economic dependence of men on such women also come to light frequently.

Prostitution and Traffic in Women

The Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956, was enforced in the district in 1956. With the enforcement of the Act this evil trade has decreased to a large extent.

Drinking—The use of liquor is common among the people of the lower castes. At the time of marriage the bride's father has to serve liquor to the bridegroom's party as a marriage present. *Tari* is the common variety of country liquor consumed in the district. There are also liquor shops in the district which sell liquor of the foreign type and well-to-do people generally drink costly wines.

Gambling—The Public Gambling Act, 1867, as applicable to the State under the Uttar Pradesh Public Gambling Acts of 1952 and 1962, prohibits gambling in public place in the district. It is usually indulged in as an innocuous pastime throughout the year, particularly on the occasion of Divali.

HOME LIFE

Types of Dwellings—There is a vast difference in the shape, size and durability of residential buildings between the rural and the urban sections of the district.

In the villages, small one-storeyed structures are most common. The walls are generally constructed of mud, plastered inside and outside with clay and have thatched or tiled roofs. The poor generally live in congested and insanitary conditions and surroundings. In areas where community development schemes have been implemented, ventilators and windows in the houses are sometimes met with. The accommodation is scanty and the covered space usually consists

of a room and a veranda in front. Sometimes a side room is added. Every house has a courtyard but there is little or no privacy for family members. Such dwellings cannot be considered comfortable or hygienic.

In urban areas pakka houses with stone or brick walls and cemented floors are common. Roofs of corrugated iron, asbestos sheets, brick or concrete are found in the houses in towns. The dwellings in the towns sometimes consist of several apartments, each meant for a specific purpose and generally have windows and ventilators.

The following statement shows the classification of households according to their size and tenure status in the district in 1971 :



Total District Rural/Urban	Tenure status	Total no. of census house- hold	Household having number of persons						No. of persons unspeci- fied
			One person	Two persons	Three persons	Four persons	Five persons	Six and more persons	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Total	Owned and Rented	2,36,125	15,680	22,030	28,375	35,420	36,295	98,205	120
	Owned	2,24,190	14,235	20,880	26,805	35,590	34,420	94,140	120
	Rented	11,935	1,445	1,150	1,570	1,830	1,875	4,065	—
Rural	Owned and Rented	2,01,920	13,430	19,080	24,795	30,725	30,955	82,820	115
	Owned	2,00,255	13,080	18,875	24,535	30,435	30,765	82,450	115
	Rented	1,665	350	205	260	290	190	370	—
Urban	Owned and Rented	34,205	2,250	2,950	3,580	4,695	5,340	15,385	5
	Owned	23,935	1,155	2,005	2,270	3,155	3,655	11,690	5
	Rented	10,270	1,095	945	1,310	1,540	1,685	3,695	—

Furniture and Decoration—The use of furniture is linked with the economic status and the standard of living of the people. The well-to-do have drawing-room suites dining tables, chairs, almirahs, dressing tables, beds, etc., but the less affluent usually manage with *takhats* (wooden divans) *morhas* (chairs made of reeds), cane-chairs, a small table or two, etc.

In the rural areas people have string cots, *morhas* and a couple of wooden chairs. Some people have a few more articles of furniture such as *takhats*, chairs, stools and tables. There are hardly any furnishings or decorations worth the name, but the walls are often decorated with crudely painted figures of dieties, animals, human being etc., and clay toys and clay idols made locally are often seen in Hindu homes in rural dwellings. Another form of decoration is a print of an open hand generally made on walls, doorways, wells, trunks of trees and cattle which is considered a good omen and is meant to ward off the evil.

When taking their meals, usually in the kitchen, people generally sit on the floor, on wooden boards or small carpets and eat out of metal utensils. The less orthodox eat at tables and the use of crockery is generally becoming popular, particularly in the towns.

Dress—The normal dress of the men, both Hindus and Muslims, is a shirt or *kurta* and dhoti or pyjamas. When going out, they wear trousers with a coat, a shirt or a bush shirt which in recent years has become the common dress of people. On formal occasions men wear coats, *sherwanis* or *achakan* and trousers, *churidar* or loose pyjamas. In the villages many men still wear turbans or caps. The usual dress of the women consists of the sari and blouse or *choli* (short blouse). Punjabi women wear the *salwar*, a *kurta* and a *dupatta*. Some Muslim women also wear the *salwar*, *kurta* and *dupatta*. Some Muslim women still wear *churidar* pyjamas or the *garara* with a *kurta*, and a *dupatta*. In the towns of the district, girls and college-going women often wear shirts and slacks, the *salwar*, *garara* or *sharara* with *kurta* and *dupatta*. Bell-bottom trousers or pyjamas and *kamiz* (shirt) have also become popular with girls in recent years. The *lahnga* (very full, long skirt) is still worn by village women particularly on ceremonial occasions in Hindu families.

Jewellery and Ornaments—Men usually do not wear jewellery as a rule except for rings on their fingers and sometimes a gold or silver chain round the neck. Low caste men also wear ear-rings.

The jewellery worn by women in the district is usually of gold, silver or nickel (depending on the economic status) and usually comprises the *bunda* or *jhumki* (ear-rings), *kara* (bangle), *paijeb* (anklet), *keel* and *nath* (nose stud and nose ring), *hansuli* (heavy necklace), *hardhani* (gold or silver waist-bond), *bichhia* (toe-rings) which are only worn by married women, finger rings and *pachhaila* (wristlet). Women also wear coloured bangles of glass or of silver and gold.

Food—The staple grains and cereals consumed by the people of the district are wheat, rice, *bajra*, jowar and maize. The pulses generally eaten are *arhar*, *urd*, *masur*, gram and *moong*. Most of the Hindus of the district are vegetarian by habit and preference. The Muslims, Christians and Sikhs are generally non-vegetarian. In the villages, where people cannot afford to eat meat daily and also because it is not easily procurable, a vegetarian diet is resorted to.

COMMUNAL LIFE

Communal Dances, Amusements and Festivities

There is hardly any community dance worth mentioning except the folk dances in the interior of the rural areas of the district. The village folk generally amuse themselves with recreations and amusements during the rainy season, and in the winter nights, when they are comparatively free from their field work. They sing folk songs called *Kajri*, *Holi* or *Phaags* and devotional hymns, to the accompaniment of musical instrument like *dholak*, *majira*, *khartal* and occasionally harmonium. Sittings are also organized usually by Muslims, and sometimes by Hindus too, when *qawwalis* (Urdu or Persian verses rendered to a traditionally set tune) are sung.

In the rural areas fairs, festivals, religious and social gatherings are also occasions for recreation and amusement. Games like *kabaddi*, *kho-kho* or sports like wrestling and volley-ball are popular among the youth. Tournaments in wrestling, *kabaddi* and volley-ball, are occasionally organised under the auspices of the Pradeshik Vikas Dal at the block, district and regional levels.

Cinema and radio are the cheapest and the most popular means of entertainment in the district. In 1978, there were three cinema houses at Shahjahanpur and one at Tilhar which had a total seating capacity of 2,300. Radio and transistor sets have become the most popular mass media for entertainment and the dissemination of news,

education etc. Television sets are also becoming popular, mostly, in the towns. There were about 50,000 radio and transistor sets in the district in 1978. Record playing of film music has become a very common entertainment among the people of the district in recent years, especially on ceremonial or festive occasions like marriages, fairs, etc.

Screening of documentary and feature films is also arranged by the mobile field publicity units of the State and Central Governments. Dramatic parties and circuses also visit the district. *Dangals* (wrestling matches), *nautankis* (indigenous open-air dramatic performances), *bhajan* and *qawwali* programmes, *kavi-sammelans* and *mushairas* are arranged at different places from time to time, particularly on the occasions of big religious fairs of the Hindus and Muslims, where swings, merry-go-rounds, *hindolas*, magic shows etc. are also a common feature. Ramlila and Krishnalila are also occasions of religious devotion and entertainment among the Hindus.

Festivals and Fairs

Festivals—Celebration of various festivals by different religious communities of the district, is closely associated with different systems of time-reckoning or calendars in vogue in different parts of the country. The Hindus in the district generally follow the Vikram Samvat (era) which precedes the Christian era by fifty-six years. The year begins with the month of Chaitra and is divided into three seasons—the winter consisting of the months of Kartika, Agrahayana, Pausa and Magha, the summer extending over the months of Phalgun, Chaitra, Vaisakha and Jyaishta and the monsoon covering Asadh, Sravana, Bhadra and Asvina. Each month is divided into two fortnights, the *sukla paksha*, the bright fortnight, when the moon is waxing and the *krishna paksha*, dark fortnight when the moon is waning. Dates are reckoned by the days of the fortnight of each month.

The Muslims in the district generally follow the Hijri era; but for accounting and commercial purposes, the Vikram era is followed. The Hijri era is Arabic in origin and came into being on the 15th day of July 622 A. D. in the 42nd year of life of Prophet Muhammad to commemorate his migration (*hijrat*) from Mecca to Madina. According to this era, a year is divided into 12 months—the Muharram, Safar, Rabi-ul-awwal, Rabi-us-sani, Jamad-ul-awwal, Jamad-us-sani, Rajab, Shaban, Ramadan, Shawwal, Ziqad and Zilhiji.

The Jains generally follow the Vir (*nirvana*) Samvatsara, which commenced in 527 B. C., from the day on which Mahavira, the last of the twenty-four *tirthankaras*, attained *nirvana*.

The Christians in the district follow the Gregorian calendar which is generally followed in the country for all practical purposes.

Festivals, symbolise the people's cultural, social and religious aspirations which help them to lead a fuller life and also mitigate its monotony by providing physical diversion and mental recreation. Though principally associated with religion, there are a number of occasions when the social aspect assumes prominence. Festivals are special days, periods of time and season, which are so arranged as to ensure both individual and communal joy coupled with social and domestic happiness. They are generally associated with religious occasions and agricultural operations at definite seasons.

Hindu Festivals. The Hindus have a number of festivals all the year round. A short account of the principal ones is given below :

Rama Navami, which falls on the ninth day of the bright half of Chaitra, is celebrated as the birthday of Rama. Fasts are observed throughout the day and the temples of Rama are specially decorated and illuminated at night. The *Ram-charitmanasa* is recited to large gatherings and sometimes continues for days.

Naga Panchami is celebrated on the fifth day of the bright half of Sravana to propitiate the *nagas* or serpent gods. Drawings of snakes in charcoal dust mixed with milk are made on the walls of the houses and are worshipped by the members of the family, particularly by the women. Milk, rice and flowers are offered to the *nagas*. Wrestling matches are also held on this occasion. It is an important rainy season festival and women and girls sing *kajaris* (folk songs) during these days. The recreation of swinging has also become more or less customary at this time of the year.

Janamastami, the festival celebrating the birth of Krishna, falls every year on the eighth day of the dark half of Bhadra.

Devotees observe fast the whole day, breaking the fast with the eating of *prasad* (part of the offerings made to the deity), at midnight when the worshippers throng temples or homes where small shrines with cradles with idols representing the infant Krishna are installed, to have a glimpse (*jhanki*) of the child god. His temples and other places are decorated and illuminated to commemorate the deity's birth. A special feature of this festival is the singing of devotional songs in praise of Krishna in temples and homes. The *chhati* (sixth-day ceremony after birth) of the deity is also celebrated by the devout.

Raksha Bandhan falls on the full-moon day of the month of Sravana when sisters tie *rakhis* (twist of coloured silk or cotton, around the right wrist of brothers, which the latter accept as a token of the protection he proffers to her and in return also gives to her some present.

Dasahra is celebrated on the tenth day of the bright half of Asvina to commemorate Rama's victory over Ravana and Ramlila celebrations are held at numerous places in the district.

Dipavali (or Diwali), the festival of lights, is celebrated in the district on the last day of the dark half of Kartika when every Hindu home in the district is illuminated and the goddess Lakshmi is worshipped. Festivities start two days earlier with Dhanteras (when gold and silver jewellery and metal utensils are purchased as a token of prosperity), followed by Narak Chaturdashi when a few, small earthen oil lamps are lit as a preliminary to the main day of the festival.

Kartiki-purnima is a bathing festival which falls on the full-moon day of Kartika, when people take bath in the rivers preferably the Ganga. Big fairs are held at Gutaiya and Natpapur on the banks of river Gomati in tahsil Powayan.

Shivaratri falls on the thirteenth day of the dark half of Phalgun and is celebrated in honour of Shiva. Hindus in the district observe fast throughout the day and a vigil is kept at night when the deity is worshipped. The Shiva temples of the district are specially decorated and illuminated and large number of devotees offer water, flowers and *belpatra* (leaves of the *bel* tree (*Aegle marmelos*) to icons and images of Shiva and sing devotional songs in his praise.

Holi, the festival of spring, falls on the last day of Phalguna and is the merry making festival of the Hindus. People, particularly in the rural areas, start singing *phaangs* (songs of Phalguna) long before the actual day of the festival. On the night of the festival, big bonfires are lit at numerous selected places to celebrate the annihilation of the forces of evil, in which newly harvested ears of barley and wheat are roasted for offering to the gods. Common rejoicing marks the following day of the festival when, till about noon, people throw coloured water, *abir* and *gulal* (coloured powders) on each other and in the evening visit relatives and friends and bless and embrace each other. There are a number of notable fairs which are held in the district, a list of which is given at the end of the chapter.

The fairs and festivals are also celebrated by the Hindu members of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes, and in addition, on certain occasions, processions connected with their forebears (Valmiki, Raidas and others) are also taken out by them.

Muslim Festivals—A short account of the most important festivals observed by the Muslims of the district, the occurrences of which correspond with particular dates in the Islamic lunar calendar, is given below.

Barawafat, the birth day of the prophet Muhammad, is celebrated on the 12th day of Rabi-ul-awwal when Muslims congregate to listen to discourses (Maulud Sharif) on the prophet's life.

Shab-e-Burat is celebrated on the night of the fourteenth day of Shaban when prayers (*fateha*) are offered for the peace of the souls of one's deceased kin.

Id-ul-Fitr falls on the first of the month of Shawal when thanks giving prayers are offered by the Muslim males in mosques after the successful completion of the fasts of the previous month of Ramadan.

Id-uz-Zuha (or Bakrid) is celebrated on the tenth day of month of Zilhijja to commemorate the occasion when the prophet Ibrahim submitted himself to the will of God. Men attend morning prayers in mosques and sheep and goats are sacrificed in God's name.

Gharhween Sharif is a festival of special importance for the Sunnis of the district and is observed on the eleventh day of the month of

Rabi-us-sani in honour of Abdul Qadir Jilani, an early Muslim saint of Baghdad, who was acclaimed as being a descendant of the prophet Muhammad. Prayers, sweets and flowers are offered in his memory on this occasion.

The first ten days of the month of Muharram commemorate the tragedy of Karbala which witnessed the martyrdom of Imam Husain (the grandson of the prophet Muhammad) and his companions. Although this occasion has special significance for the Shias, the Sunnis also take part in some of the observances. The *imambaras* are illuminated on the ninth of the month, and *majlises* (religious assemblies) are held from the first to the ninth and *tazias* are taken out in procession separately by the Shias and Sunnis on the tenth day (Ashra).

Fairs and congregations are organised at the tombs of Pirs, prominent religious persons and are styled as *urs* (anniversaries).

Christian Festivals—The main festivals of the Christians of the district are the Christmas, which falls on December 25 and is meant to celebrate the birth of Jesus Christ, the Good Friday, commemorating Christ's crucifixion, and the Easter commemorating to celebrate Christ's resurrection.

Sikh Festivals—The important festivals that are celebrated by the Sikhs of the district are the birth days of their gurus, Nanak and Govind Singh, when processions are taken out and congregational prayers held in the *gurudwaras* and recitations from the *Granth Sahib* are made. Other festivals celebrated by them are Baisakhi and Lohri.

Jain Festivals—The Jains of the district celebrate the birth and *nirvana* anniversaries of Mahavira their twenty-fourth *tirthankara*. Other important festivals of the Jains are Paryushan (the last ten days of Bhadra) and Asthanhika (the last eight days of Kartika).

Buddhist Festivals—The principal festival of the Buddhists is the Buddha Purnima, the day on which Buddha took birth, got enlightenment and attained *nirvana*. On this occasion the Buddhists worship in their temples and recite verses from *Tripitaka*.

The detailed list of the fairs held in the district is given at the end of the chapter in Statement II.

PUBLIC GAMES AND RECREATION CLUBS AND ASSOCIATIONS

Games are pastime and help in building some of the good traits of character, such as spirit of co-operation and discipline and also help

in building physique. They aim at creating community consciousness and enthusiasm in people. *Kabaddi, gulli-danda, kho-kho, patang* (kite-flying), playing cards, etc., are the traditional indigenous games and sports in the district. Western games such as cricket, basketball, foot-ball, volley-ball, table tennis, badminton, etc., are also becoming popular in the towns. Facilities for playing these games are provided in the schools, colleges, sports clubs and gymnasias. On the occasion of the district sports meets large number of youths participate in these games. The indoor games of carom and chess have also gained popularity among the youngsters, while playing cards is a favourite pastime with the adults.

The elder section among the higher and middle classes in the towns also prefer to go to clubs in the evening, whereas the younger people studying in schools and colleges have their own sports clubs, and athletic associations. In the clubs, the games usually played by the members are tennis, badminton as outdoor and carom, table-tennis, chess and playing cards as indoor games.

NEW TRENDS

The wind of change is blowing all round under the impact of the Five-year Plans. The patterns in dress, ornaments, social customs, food and other habits of the people, their mode of living, their religious beliefs and practices have undergone considerable changes during the last nearly three decades. The impact of the cinema is far-reaching, though not necessarily healthy. With the diversification of occupations and spread of education, the caste and social barriers are gradually breaking down and the old rigidity and the rigours of the caste system are fast disappearing and inter-caste and even inter-religion marriages are on the increase. The notions of untouchability are fast vanishing from the towns specially because of the spread of education. The evil still persists in the villages and the rural folk need more of education and guidance in this respect. The extension of general and technical education has opened up new vistas of employment on account of the schemes under the Five-year plans. Women have by and large shed their shyness and are slowly but steadily coming forward to take important place along with the men in the society.

The right of universal adult suffrage and the elections to the State legislatures, the Lok Sabha, the local bodies like the panchayats, etc., have provided a sort of political education to the people.

With the increase in the agricultural production, rise in the prices of agricultural commodities, the purchasing power of cultivators has increased considerably, with the result that they spend liberally on social customs, festivals and ceremonies.

Impact of Zamindari Abolition on Social Life—The U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950, (Act no. 1 of 1951), came into operation in the district on July 1, 1952. It brought about significant changes in the social and economic life of the people. The rural elite which consisted mainly of the zamindars, who had been exploiting actual tillers of the land for the last several centuries, has since been replaced by a community of progressive farmers owning land and cultivating it with full vigour and adopting modern practices. Not only the per capita farm produce has increased, but the prosperity of the cultivators in general has also improved, manifesting itself in better food, clothing and furnishings in the dwellings in the rural areas.

New educational institutions are coming up rapidly through voluntary efforts to combat illiteracy, which had hitherto impeded the social and economic advancement of the people. The rural society is undergoing a fast transformation to meet fresh challenges of life successfully.

STATMENT I

Population

Reference Page No. 47

District and Tahsil	Area (in sq. km.)		1971				1961			
	1971	1961	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Females
District Shahjahanpur										
Total	4,598.6	4,636.3	12,86,104	7,15,529	5,70,575	11,30,256	6,18,900	5,11,356		
Rural	4,568.4	4,603.9	10,90,082	6,10,213	4,79,869	9,72,660	5,34,641	4,38,019		
Urban	30.6	32.4	1,96,022	1,05,316	90,706	1,57,596	84,259	73,337		
Tahsil Powayan										
Total	1,553.0	1,591.6	2,96,488	1,63,943	1,32,545	2,52,656	1,37,307	1,15,349		
Rural	1,552.2	1,590.8	2,87,555	1,59,073	1,28,482	2,45,273	1,33,331	1,11,942		
Urban	0.8	0.8	8,933	4,870	4,063	7,383	3,976	3,407		
Tahsil Tilhar										
Total	1,072.8	1,071.7	3,21,913	1,79,471	1,42,442	2,92,008	1,59,945	1,32,063		
Rural	1,069.3	1,062.4	2,95,076	1,65,272	1,29,804	2,68,072	1,47,310	1,20,762		
Urban	3.5	9.3	26,837	14,199	12,638	23,936	12,635	11,301		
Tahsil Shahjahanpur										
Total	1,022.3	1,022.5	4,11,947	2,27,363	1,84,584	3,53,050	1,91,851	1,61,199		
Rural	999.1	1,003.3	2,62,796	1,47,037	1,15,759	2,35,348	1,28,835	1,06,513		
Urban	23.2	19.2	1,49,151	80,326	68,825	1,17,702	63,016	54,686		
Tahsil Jalalabad										
Total	950.5	950.5	2,55,756	1,44,752	1,11,004	2,32,542	1,29,797	1,02,745		
Rural	947.4	947.4	2,44,655	1,38,881	1,05,854	2,23,997	1,25,165	98,802		
Urban	3.1	3.1	11,101	5,921	5,180	8,575	4,632	3,943		

NOTE:—According to the central statistical organisation the total area of district was 4581.6 sq. km. (rural and is 5510.40 sq. km. and urban 31.6 sq. km.) in 1971.

STATEMENT II

*List of Fairs**Reference Page No. 73*

Place	Name of fair or its association with	Date	Average daily attendance
1	2	3	4
TAHSIL POWAYAN			
Ayola	Tandhy Nath Mahadeo	Amavasya of every month	500
Bhagwantpur	Brahmdeoiji	Amavasya of every month	500
Bhatiura	Brahmdeoiji	Vaisakha Sukla 15, Agrahayana Sukla 15	500
Bikrampur	Deviji	Amavasya of every month	200
Bilampur	Maghsara Mela	Chaitra, Krishna 30 Bhadra, Krishna 30	500
Dookali	Ramlila	Kartika, Krishna 30	1,000
Ghanshiampur	Gulali Shah	Kartika, Sukla 15	500
Gutaiya	Gomati Ashnan	Kartika, Sukla 15	1,000
Khutar	Ramlila	Asvina, Sukla 1—10	2,000
Mahaondurgoo	Durgaji	Amavasya of every month	300
Mati Muafi	Deviji	Amavasya of every month	400
Mauna Bari	Mahadeoji	Jyaistha, Sukla 10 Kartika, Sukla 15	3,000
Nagra Zamima	Amar Baba	Every Monday	200
Narsainpur	Deviji	Amavasya of every month	200
Nathapur	Gomati Ashnan	Kartika, Sukla 15	1,000
Nawadia Luchhan	Mahadeoji	Purnamasi of every month	400
Powayan Town Area	Ramlila	Powayan T. A.	12,500
Sunasar Muafi	Gomati Ashnan	Jyaistha Sukla, 10 Kartika, Sukla, 15	5,000

[Contd.]

1	2	3	4
Taharpur	Peeron-ka-Mela	Jyaistha, Krishna 5 Agrahayana, Krishna 5	300

TAHSIL TIHAR

Bamhianan	Deviji	Amavasya of every month	100
Chateni	Dhanush Yagya	Asadha, Sukla 15 Agrahayana, Sukla 15	500
Dhakiara Gha	Dhanush Yagya	Chaitra, Sukla 15 Asvina, Sukla 15	1,000
Dhakia Tiwari	Hanumanji	Chaitra, Sukla 9 Bhadra, Krishna 8	200
Gagepur	Sivaratri	Phalguna, Krishna 13	3,506
Gohabar	Rama Navami	Chaitra, Sukla 9	500
Jargawan	Jarat	Every Thursday	350
Katra	Dasahra	Asvina, Sukla 10	6,000
Katra Khas	Deviji	Chaitra, Sukla 15 Asvina, Sukla 15	2,000
Milkipur	Dasahra	Kartika, Sukla 10	2,000
Nigohi	Deviji	Amavasya of every month	400
Sanda Khas	Dhanush Yagya	Agrahayana, Sukla 12—15	8,000
Tihar Municipal Board	Dasahra	Asvina, Sukla 10	6,000

TAHSIL JALALABAD

Allahganj	Dasahra	Asvina, Sukla 1—10	6,000
Bhartapur	Jyaistha Dasahra	Jyaistha, Sukla 5—12	25,000
Gogipur	Mahadeoji	Phalguna, Krishna 13	4,000
Jalalabad Town Area	Dasahra	Asvina, Sukla 1—10	8,000
Kalan	Margashirsh	Agrahayana	8,000
Kollapur Kalan	Janki Baba	Chaitra, Sukla 15	5,000
Kowalrampur Chilowa	Deviji	Chaitra, Sukla 13-14	5,000

[Contd.]

1	2	3	4
Kundaria	Deviji	<i>Jyaishta, Sukla 15 to Asadha, Krishna 2</i>	25,000
Panta Deokali	Mahadeoji	<i>Phalguna, Krishna 13</i>	4,000
Pirthipur Dhai	Gangaji	<i>Kartika, Sukla 11 to Agrahayana, Krishna 4</i>	5,000
Pirthipur Dhai	Gangaji	<i>Magha</i>	8,000
Pirthipur Dhai	<i>Jyaishta Desahra</i>	<i>Jyaishta, Sukla 10</i>	1,500
Ram Nagaria	Manghi Ram	<i>Magha</i>	3,000



CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

LAND UTILIZATION AND RECLAMATION

The earliest statistics of land utilization are those compiled in 1839. The total area then recorded was 4,37,406 ha. (10,88,498 acres) and of this an area of 2,28,224 ha. (5,63,954 acres) was cultivated. The next record is that of 1853, when the total cultivated area came to 2,56,549 ha. (633,946 acres). The settlement figures of 1869 show further increase in the cultivated area, which then had risen to 2,99,549 ha. (7,40,204 acres). In 1884-85 the cultivated area had fallen to 2,79,233 ha. (6,91,001 acres) owing to various causes such as the drought of 1878. The next ten years, however, saw a marked improvement. The annual average was 2,93,419 ha. (7,25,055 acres).

The following statement shows the figures of net cultivated area in the district from 1901 to 1976-77:

Year	Net cultivated area (in ha.)
1901	2,98,146
1911	3,19,083
1921	2,93,598
1931	2,95,296
1941	2,94,263
1951	3,18,729
1961	3,35,377
1970-71	3,08,371
1976-77	3,37,756

Culturable Land

Besides land under the plough, forests, groves, fallows, waste lands like pastures and overgrowth of kans, dhak and other pernicious vegetations constitute the culturable land.

An idea of the extent of the type of land in the district may be had from the figures given below. In 1976-77 such lands included 11,181 ha. of forests, 7,118 ha. of groves, 3,613 ha. of culturable waste, 433 ha. of pastures besides 26,708 ha. of fallow land.

Unculturable Land

The land which is classified as unculturable due to sand, ravine scouring, *reh*, *kans*, water and due to non-agricultural uses (roads habitation, grave-yard, etc.) accounted for 47,879 ha. in the district in that year.

IRRIGATION

The district enjoys exceptionally good irrigation facilities. Even before the introduction of canals the natural advantages of the district were far greater than in many parts of the doab. The introduction and the subsequent extension of the canal supply benefited the tracts immensely.

The frequency of waterings given to the fields depends on varying circumstances, such as the nature of the season, the ability and energy of the cultivators and the character of the soil. As a rule the district enjoys copious and well distributed rainfall during the monsoon and some precipitation may be expected even during the winter.

Wells have been the most important source of irrigation in the district since early times. As is the case throughout the doab, the water level is highest in the central tract, or near the watershed, where subsoil is firm and stable, and lowest in the vicinity of the high banks of the great rivers where the subsoil is usually loose and sandy, rendering the construction of wells difficult and expensive.

In spite of the great extension of the canal system, wells (including tube-wells) still form the chief source of irrigation. It is through these wells that the crops get regular water-supply. Thus while the construction of the canals has not been without effect, the area watered from wells has actually increased.

Previously the *rutchha* wells were quite numerous, but since their life was short, a number of *pakka* wells were constructed in recent years. In the year 1977 there were 12,832 wells and 7,764 private tube-wells (both oil and electricity-driven) in the district besides 12,538 *rahats* and 14,514 pumping-sets, the irrigated area being 1,01,826 ha. during the same year. The district had 177 State tube-wells in 1977, of which 136 were in *tahsil* Powayan.

Canals

Shahjahanpur canal branch system was for the first time opened in 1930. Its total length in 1976 was 469 km. and it irrigated an area of 42,974 hectares.

Nigohi branch was also opened in the year 1930. It had a total length of 178 km. in 1976 and it irrigated an area of 13,022 hectares in the same year.

The Hardoi branch system was also opened in 1930 with a total length of 214 km. in 1976 and it irrigated an area of about 27,089 hectares in the district in the same year.

During the last three decades, the government has undertaken a number of irrigation programmes. The construction of additional State tube-wells in the district is one of such programmes.

The following statement shows the irrigated area under the main food and non-food crops in the district in 1976-77 :

Name of crop	Irrigated area (in ha.)
Food Crops :	
Paddy	32,465
Maize	158
Wheat	1,39,147
Barley	2,614
Gram	4,378
Pea	3,665
All types of pulses	8,407
Non-food Crops :	
Sugar-cane	23,497
Potato	2,919
Mustard	5,842

AGRICULTURE INCLUDING HORTICULTURE

Soils

The soils throughout the district correspond closely to the types prevailing over the whole of the Ganga plains (doab). The chief varieties of soils in the district are *bhur* or sand, *matiar* or clay, and *dumat* or loam, the last being a mixture of two or more kinds. The highest proportion of *bhur* is in parganas Kant and Khutar followed by Tilhar and Powayan; *matiar* occurs in parganas Jamaur, Jalalabad, Nigohi and Khara Bajhera; while *dumat* is found in the rest of the district. Locally the richly manured soil near the village sites is called *gauhani*; the soil growing rice and other crops, is called *dhankar*; while *khapat* is the very hardest and poorest clay usually found in natural drainage and flood times, where water collects and remains locked for long periods during the rainy season.

Cultivation

The fifth decade of the present century was the turning point in the field of agriculture. State tube-wells and private pumping-sets together with various other minor irrigation works were by and large capable of providing ample irrigation to the crops. There has been an appreciable extension of the double-cropped (*dofasli*) area and the more valuable and high-yielding staples are very fastly replacing the old and indigenous varieties.

Harvests

As is usual in the doab, the agricultural year yields three harvests: the *kharif*, *rabi* and *zaid*. The last is of little significance in point of area and mainly consists of cucurbits, vegetables, spices, tobacco, legumes and low grade cereals. It covered only an area of 319 ha. in 1970-71. Melons, *kakri* and cucumbers are mostly grown in the *khadirs* and along the sandy banks of the rivers.

The *kharif* crops are sown in Asadha-Sravana (June-July) and reaped in Asvina-Kartika (September-October) after the cessation of the rains, usually well before the preparation of the fields for *rabi* sowing which begins in Kartika-Agrahayana (October-November) and are harvested in Chaitra-Vaisakha-Jyaistha (March to May).

The relative figures of the area covered by *kharif* and *rabi* crops and *dofasli* (double cropped) in the district in 1951-52, 1961-62 and 1978-79 are given below :

Year	Area under <i>kharif</i> (in ha.)	Area under <i>rabi</i> (in ha.)	Area under <i>dofasli</i> (in ha.)
1951-52	1,76,099	1,74,021	30,858
1961-62	2,02,683	1,94,147	61,892
1978-79	2,34,551	2,41,622	1,38,627

Principal Crops

Kharif—Jowar, *bajra* and maize were the main crops of this season till the close of the last century. The area under maize and jowar has now shrunk considerably and that under rice and *bajra* has expanded appreciably. The main *kharif* cereals, in order of the area

they cover, are rice, *bajra*, jowar and maize. Among the pulses in this season, *urd*, *moong* and *moth* are the chief.

The following statement gives some relevant details of the main *kharif* cereals in the district in 1972-73 :

<i>Kharif</i> crops	Area sown (in ha.)	Total production (in tonnes)	Area yield per ha. in dis- trict (in quintals)	Average yield per ha. in State (in quin- tals)
Maize	7,029	4,706	6.17	8.83
<i>Bajra</i>	23,567	10,875	4.61	6.60
Rice	55,991	37,706	6.73	7.36
Jowar	15,639	4,690	3.00	6.77

Rabi—In the *rabi*, wheat grown by itself has greatly increased in the last few decades, but the old practice of sowing it in combination with other grains has not altogether disappeared.

Barley was a favourite crop in the district covering nearly a third of the *rabi* area till the advent of the canals in the late fifties of the last century, since then its cultivation has declined. Other important *rabi* cereals are gram and pea. Of the pulses only *arhar* and *masur* are important. A characteristic feature of *arhar* is that it is sown with the *kharif* crops and harvested later than most of the *rabi* crops, which is why it is hardly ever sown as a single crop being usually combined with *bajra* or jowar which are harvested in November, leaving it standing alone in the field.

The following statement gives some particulars of the principal *rabi* cereals produced in the district in 1972-73 :

<i>Rabi</i> crops	Area sown (in ha.)	Total production (in tonnes)	Average yield per ha. in district (in quintals)	Average yield per ha. in State (in quintals)
Wheat	1,35,777	1,16,677	8.59	1.12
Gram	28,933	17,761	6.14	7.52
Barley	6,405	6,443	10.06	10.15
<i>Arhar</i> (<i>kharif</i>)	10,344	16,815	16.26	14.69
Pea	9,584	4,198	4.38	6.06
<i>Masur</i>	6,091	3,297	4.72	

Non-food Crops

Sugar-cane, oil-seeds (like ground-nut and mustard), vegetables and fruits are the notable non-food crops in the district. Cotton and tobacco were flourishing cash crops in the district in the early years of the present century but their areas have declined now.

To boost up the production of oil-seeds special programme has been launched in the district and for that purpose specially trained technical staff has been posted.

Vegetables, turnips, carrots and other garden produce occupy a significant area in the district specially around the towns and villages.

There are three government agricultural farms in the district located at Narainpur (started in 1957-58), Dhimarpura (started in 1957-58) and at Nigohi (started in 1934-35).

The statement below gives some relevant details about the main cash (non-food) crops raised in the district in 1972-73 :

Crops	Area sown (in ha.)	Total production (in tonnes)	Average yield per ha. in the district (in quintals)	Average yield per ha. in the State (in quintals)
Sugar-cane	30,457	9,17,055	301.10	412.65
Ground-nut	5,161	4,548	8.81	8.12
Mustard	5,117	2,657	5.19	5.13
Oil-seeds	11,578	7,402	—	4.32
Potato	3,232	30,695	94.9	92.04

IMPROVEMENT OF AGRICULTURE

The ever-increasing demand for food-grains necessitated far-reaching improvements and changes in the pattern and technique of agriculture. In the post-Independence period, especially since the launching of the "green revolution" in the sixties of this century, the development of agriculture has been given a very important place and some measures taken in the district to this end are mentioned below :

Seed-supply

The most common among the recently introduced high-yielding varieties of seeds of cereals are Exotic paddy, Hybrid maize, Mexican wheat, U. P. wheat, U. P. maize and Hybrid *bajra*.

Seeds are supplied by the government through the seed stores maintained by the agriculture and the co-operative departments. The total number of such seed stores was 30 in the district in 1977-78, and they distributed nearly 4,526 quintals of seeds of *khari*f and *rabi* cereals in the district in that year. Seed is also obtainable from the National Seeds Corporation and Tarai Development Corporation, Pantnagar, but the bulk of the need of the farmers is met by local seed stores and other private agencies.

It is proposed to cover the entire cropped area in the district with improved and high-yielding varieties of seeds of cereals. The achievement made in the field of seed saturation programme with regard to some important food crops in the district was as follows in the years 1972-73 to 1979-80 :

	Percentage of cropped area saturated							
	1972-73	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80
Wheat	1.10	0.50	0.60	0.40	2.00	1.10	1.30	1.50
Paddy	0.90	0.85	0.48	0.80	0.80	0.85	1.30	1.50
Barley	0.40	0.50	0.50	0.90	0.90	2.00	0.90	1.00
Poa	0.40	0.50	0.50	0.09	0.08	0.20	0.60	0.60
Gram	0.40	0.5	0.50	0.09	0.90	0.10	0.10	0.50

Soil Nutrients

The traditional manures are cattle-dung, farm refuse and stable litter. The usefulness of green manure crops such as *dhaincha*, *sanai*, and *moong*, which provide nitrogenous matter to the soil and increase its fertility is being increasingly realised by the cultivators. Generally they use their own green manure seeds. In some cases they purchase the seed from the market. The following statement

gives the quantity of seeds distributed by the seed stores and area sown with them in the district from 1972-73 to 1979-80 :

Year	Dhaincha		Sannai	
	Seed distribtu- ed (in quintals)	Area sown (in ha.)	Seed distribut- ed (in quintals)	Area sown (in ha.)
1972-73	—	9,588	—	4,213
1973-74	—	10,899	—	4,659
1974-75	15.00	11,560	10.00	3,712
1975-76	37.30	16,128	—	4,059
1976-77	—	13,798	—	4,012
1977-78	—	14,008	—	3,911
1978-79	5.00	15,004	—	4,102
1979-80	12.00	16,256	—	4,713

The application of chemical fertilizers has become popular with the farmers of the district. Nitrogenous, phosphatic and potassic fertilizers are the most widely used. The seed stores meet only a part of the demand for fertilisers, the bulk being obtained by the cultivators from private dealers. The total quantity of fertilisers distributed to the farmers in the district in 1972-73 was as follows :

Type of fertilisers	Quantity distributed (in tonnes)
Nitrogen (N ₂)	4,634
Phosphoric anhydride (P ₂ O ₅)	1,148
Potassium (K ₂ O)	544

The agriculture department also distributed *tagavi* (agricultural loans) amounting to Rs 61,150 for the purchase of fertilisers and other agricultural inputs in 1977-78.

Agricultural Implements and Machines

The farmers make their own arrangement for the purchase of improved implements through the agriculture department and the State Agro-industrial Corporation. Loans are also provided for purchasing implements and for making other agricultural improvement by the co-operative institutions in the district. Apart from private money-

lenders, the main source of credit (for various agricultural purposes) to the agriculturists in the district is the co-operative credit societies which numbered 115 in 1976-77. The U. P. State Sahkari Bhumi Vikas Bank, branches of which have been established at each tahsil headquarters, also provide long-term loans for measures like land development, reclamation, soil conservation, etc.

Rotation of Crops and Mixed Cropping

In the past the practice of leaving the fields fallow for at least one season was considered necessary to allow the land time to recuperate its fertility. But of late this practice is being abandoned as the rotation of crops and mixed cropping provide increased yields. The agriculture department, agricultural universities and research centres are evolving better and more scientific rotations and mixtures of crops and propagating them among the farmers. The most common rotations being practised in the district are maize-wheat ; maize-potato-tobacco ; paddy-wheat ; maize-early potato-late potato ; *bajra*, wheat, ground-nut-wheat ; and green manure wheat.

The system of mixed cultivation gives additional harvest in the same field, the overall yield being thus increased and the field and its nutrients and other inputs of cultivation being utilised to the maximum. Leguminous crops like *moong*, *urd* and *guar* sown with cereal crops, provide nitrogenous matter to the soil and through it to the standing crops. Almost always *arhar* is mixed with *urd*, *til* or ground-nut ; *bajra* with *urd*, *arhar* or ground-nut, wheat with gram, pea or mustard ; barley with gram or pea ; maize with *urd* ; and cotton with *urd*. Potato is sown mixed with *methi* (fenugreek) or onion ; sugar-cane with *moong* ; and rainy season vegetables and late paddy with *dhania* (coriander).

Agricultural Co-operatives

The practice of the joint cultivation of land (*sajha*) is very old. Other forms of co-operation in agricultural operations have also been common among the cultivators. At present statutory co-operative societies have been organised in the villages for farming, distribution of seeds, loans, fertilisers, implements and marketing of agricultural produce, etc. In 1976-77 there were 30 such societies and four co-operative marketing societies at Tilhar, Jalalabad, Powayan and Shahjahanpur.

The District Co-operative Bank and the Co-operative Federation at the district headquarters and branches of the U. P. Co-operative Land Development Bank at each of the tahsil headquarters and 115 co-operative credit societies cover the whole of the rural area of the district. These institutions provide loans, seeds, fertilizers and marketing facilities for use by the cultivators.

Horticulture

Orchards and groves form a prominent feature in the landscape in almost every part of the district. The total area of groves and orchards was 7,158 hectares in 1976-77. Groves consist of mango, guava, papaya, *ber*, *jamun*, jackfruit and tamarind. The horticultural needs of the district are met by a Government nursery which was opened in October 1976 at Government Garden Powayan and six private seed merchants.

Melons and vegetables like tomato, garlic, onion, turnips and potato are the notable horticultural crops of the district; land along the Garra and Ramganga being sandy is famous for its sweet and delicious melons which are grown profusely as *zaid* crops. The horticulture department arranges the supply of fruit saplings and seeds and seedlings of vegetables to the cultivators in the district. Nearly 2,51,115 seedlings of vegetables and 2,897 quintals of seeds of different vegetables were supplied to the cultivators in the district in 1977-78 by the horticulture department.

Agricultural Diseases and Pests

The different crops and cropping patterns and the variable climatic conditions of the district provide an ideal environment for the multiplication and thriving of insects, disease organisms and weeds. The continuous activity of pests, diseases and weeds goes on throughout the year in one part of the district or the other, posing a perennial threat to agriculture.

Various kinds of insects, mites, nematoda, rodents, fungi, bacteria and viruses cause great damage to crops. Snails and slugs, crabs, birds, monkeys, rats, wild pigs, rabbits, jackals, other wild animals, bats, parrots, porcupines also take a heavy toll of agricultural crops.

The insects and diseases which damage the rice crop are the stem borer (*Tryboryza; incertutes*), the rice hispa (*Hispa; armigera*), blast (*Piricularia oryzae*) and the bacterial leaf blight (*Xanthomonas*

oryzae). Wheat, oat and barley suffer severely from rusts, smuts and blunts. Jowar, *bajra* and lesser millets suffer from stem borers, jowar stem fly (*Atherigona indica*) and loose smuts. Pulses are usually damaged by caterpillars, pod borers, aphids, jassias, powdery mildew, leaf spots and blights.

Polyphagous insects like grasshoppers, caterpillars, cut-worms and army worms, root-grubs and termites cause considerable loss to food-grain crops. Rodents are responsible for much destruction in the fields as well as in the stores and warehouses. A large number of wild weeds and grass like kans (*Sacharum spontaneum*) and the like also infest the crops and depress yields considerably. The average crop and storage losses due to these diseases and pests is estimated to be nearly 10 to 30 per cent of the total annual production. There are a number of pesticides and insecticides to destroy and control insects, pests and diseases and weeds. The plant protection department in the district is charged with the task of not only taking preventive and controlling measures but also of advising and guiding the cultivators in fighting the menace on their own.

The following statement show the work done by the agriculture department (Plant Protection) in the district in 1976-77 and 1977-78 :

Crops protection measures undertaken	1976-77	1977-78
Seed treatment (ha.)	62,881	49,175
Field work (ha.)	70,150	54,794
General pests (ha.)	16,646	18,669
Intensive plant protection measures (ha.)	51,817	49,787
Weed control (ha.)	8,799	5,315
Control of stored grain pests (quintals)	53,976	46,772
Training given to cultivators in crops protection measures (No.)	7,703	9,353

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY AND FISHERIES

The domestic animals, though generally well suited to the conditions of the country, are of a small and inferior type, comparing unfavourably with those found in the districts of the doab. In many cases, however, animals of a better class are imported from Kheri

and other parts of the submontane tract. As a rule a somewhat better stamp of cattle is to be seen in the Powayan Tahsil than elsewhere. This is due to the existence of good pasture land in that sub-division. There is no distinctive breed of cattle in this district, though the best resemble the Parchar strain for which the neighbouring parts of Kheri have acquired a well-deserved reputation. Attempts were made by the government in the past to improve the local stock by means of bulls imported from the Punjab and other parts, but the experiment proved unsuccessful owing to the inability of these animals to withstand the change of climate. However, due to a fair amount of pasturage obtainable in the Ganga valley and in the forest tracts of the north the number of animals continues to increase. The large number of cattle and buffaloes in the district illustrates the importance of the dairy farming in the district. There was a flourishing trade in ghee since remote past and with increasing number of animals, this trade has now become all the more valuable and ghee is exported in large quantities to all the neighbouring parts of the district.

The live-stock population of the district in 1972 was as follows :

Live-stock	Number
Cattle (cows and bulls)	3,87,777
Buffaloes (male and female)	2,76,558
Goats	1,13,105
Sheep	8,142
Pigs	21,205

The sheep of Shahjahanpur are of a poor type and of little economic importance, but the goats represent an asset of great value on account of their milk, their flesh and their hair, which is woven into blankets by the Gadariyas. Where available both sheep and goats are used for penning on the field, for the sake of the manure and the cultivators pay a small fee to the herdsmen in return for the benefits derived from them.

According to local tradition the district is noted for its horses, but the breed is of inferior type. In 1972 there were 6,286 horses and ponies, 218 mules, 951 donkeys and 51 camels in the district. Most of the horses and ponies consist of wretched animals kept by Banjaras

and others for pack transport. Some of these are utilised for harness work in tongas and ekkas.

Development of Live-stock

Several attempts were made in the past at improving the indigenous breed by introducing stud bulls of a superior stamp. But the experiment did not prove sufficiently successful to warrant its continuance.

Considerable progress has, however, been made in the last nearly three decades in improving the breed of the cattle by the animal husbandry department through selective breeding, culling undesirable animals and upgrading indigenous cattles with improved bulls of well-known and tried Indian breeds and distribution of improved varieties of fodder and cattle seed at moderate rates.

Artificial insemination service programme for breeding cows and buffaloes is getting increasingly popular among the villagers, there being 21 stockmen centres in different parts of the district in 1976-77. More than 7,360 animals were artificially inseminated at these centres in the year 1976-77.

Loans are also advanced by the government to the farmers for purchasing the cattle of improved stock.

For improving the breed of sheep, goats and pigs pedigree stud rams, bucks and boars are stationed at the veterinary hospitals of the government and are also distributed among the breeders at nominal prices.

Poultry farming is also rapidly gaining ground with the increasing demand of poultry products in and around the district. There is a poultry farm situated at Lodipur in the district. A total number of 11,782 birds of improved breeds were distributed to the poultry farmers in the district in 1976-77.

Cattle Diseases and Treatment

Many forms of cattle disease are prevalent throughout the district, the most common are foot-and-mouth disease, which is not usually fatal and rinderpest (*pokna*), which occasionally assumes an epidemic form and carries off large number of animals. Anthrax (*tilsuja*), the most deadly of all, is fortunately rare, and its outbreaks are almost always sporadic and confined to isolated localities. In the forest tracts and the low river valleys there is a good deal of haemorrhagic septicaemia

(malignant sore throat), known locally as *gutaria*, and this, save in rare instance, is attended with fatal results. Efforts have been made to encourage inoculation for rinderpest and other diseases. The live-stock officer at the district level looks after the cattle breeding programme and treatment and prevention of diseases. There were 19 veterinary hospitals and 21 stockman centres in the district in 1976-77. Total number of animals treated at these hospitals during the year 1976-77 was 62,143 those that were vaccinated against various diseases numbered 1,79,675 and the number of useless male cattle that were castrated was 2,562.

Housing and Feeding

Domestic animals are generally housed in thatched kutchha sheds. Modern masonry and well-ventilated byres, with roofs of iron and asbestos sheets are to be seen only in the government farms and farms owned by the well-to-do cultivators in the district.

Grazing facilities for the cattle are available in the forests, waste lands, groves and harvested or fallow fields. On the banks of the canals and alongside the railway track, cattle are allowed to graze under stipulated conditions. The *khadir* of the Ganga has considerable extent of *jhai* or tamarisk jungle and so it provides pasturage for cattle, whereas in other parts of the district the area available for grazing is very limited. In 1977, the total area covered by culturable waste, pastures, forests and fallow lands in the district was 39,093 hectares. Barren and unculturable lands which also serve as grazing grounds measured 698 hectares in the same year.

The crops which provide fodder are maize, jowar, *bajra*, *lobia*, *moong*, *dhaincha* and *sanaï*. The husk, dried and crushed stalks of wheat barley, *urd*, pea, gram and paddy are also used by the farmers to feed the cattle. Seeds of improved fodder crops are supplied by the government as well as private dealers. An area of 30,907 hectares was sown with improved fodder crops in the district in the year 1977.

Fisheries

Fish are found in the lakes and rivers of the district. Many varieties of fish are to be found generally identical with those which are common to the rivers and lakes of all the plain districts, though as usual the local names differ to some extent from those in vogue elsewhere. The most common belong to the families of the *cyrinidae* and *siluridae*.

The following statement gives the details regarding the development of fisheries in the years 1975-76 and 1976-77 :

Year	Production of fingerlings (No.)	Number of fingerlings reared in tanks maintained by the department	Distribution to the fishermen (No.)	Fish exported (in quintals)
1975-76	1,03,750	27,100	35,500	1,219
1976-77	1,97,500	94,500	50,006	2,820

The two fisheries development centres, in the district, at Baleli and Kaneg, 18 nurseries and two co-operative societies are working for the development of fisheries.

Forestry

In the past large areas in the district were covered with heavy dhak and thorny shrubs, but in the last hundred years or so greater part had been cleared and brought under cultivation and the scanty remains are also fast disappearing. Another most valuable kind is the *sarkanda*, called *sarpai* in other parts. This grows chiefly in the sandy valleys of rivers and is used for thatching and many other purposes. The stalk is utilised for making chairs and is twisted into *moonj* fibre for ropes and matting.

Valuable plantations have been done by the forest department in the district. Trees like *sissoo*, mango, teak, *jamun*, *bel* and four varieties of fig called the *pipal*, *bargad*, *pakur* and *gular* have been planted along the roads and canals.

The main forest products are honey, gum, hides and horns of animals, flowers, fruits, medicinal herbs, bamboo, firewood, etc. The forests also provide grazing ground to the cattle. The requirements of building material, agricultural implements and fuel are also to some extent met from the forests. The district had a forest area of 11,181 ha. in 1976-77.

NATURAL CALAMITIES

Practically nothing is known of the famines and other calamities which befell this district prior to the introduction of British rule. It is fairly safe to assume that it did not escape the visitations of 1345, 1424, 1631 and 1661, which appear to have extended through-

out India. In 1961 the whole of Rohilkhand was smitten, and a very large number of persons are said to have died of starvation, while many villages were deserted by their inhabitants. The great famine of 1783-84 did not press so heavily here as in the tracts south of the Ganga. In 1803-04 rains completely failed for the autumn harvest. In 1825-26 drought again occurred, but did not cause famine. The autumn rains failed in 1837-38, but a slight rainfall in February saved the spring harvests. The famine of 1860-61 was severely felt throughout Rohilkhand, though Shahjahanpur did not suffer more than the contiguous district of Badaun. In 1868-69 the scarcity was severe, but only lasted for seven weeks. The famine of 1877-78 was the worst since the commencement of the British rule. A series of bad harvests had followed the previous scarcity of 1868-69, and prices had risen owing to the demand for grain in southern India. The autumn harvest was a complete failure. The after effects of the famine were severely felt when an epidemic of fever broke out in 1879. In 1895 rain ceased prematurely, and distress was felt in the north of the district. The monsoon of 1896 closed even earlier than of 1895 and the sugar-cane and rice were seriously damaged, considerable use was made of river water and a fair *rabi* crop was secured.

There was scarcity again in 1907-08. The rains failed and measures had to be taken to relieve the distress. In 1908 gratuitous relief was given in Shahjahanpur city and in the towns of Tilhar, Katra, Khudaganj, Jalalabad and Powayan.

There was scarcity again in 1914 owing to the failure of the monsoon in 1913. Its effect was most noticeable in the parganas of Katra, Khera Bajhera and in some other parts of tahsil Tilhar, adjacent to Jalalabad. Again in 1918 the district narrowly escaped famine. There was a general failure of rains and the *kharif* crops were badly damaged. Prices went up abnormally. The parganas of Jalalabad, Khera Bajhera and Barragaon were severely affected. Private charity was mobilised for giving relief to the poor.

The excessive rainfall in 1919 and 1924 caused floods in the Ganga, Ramganga and Gomati.

The period between 1955-56 and 1963-64 was marked by floods in nearly all the rivers in the district. Years 1964-65 and 1968-69 were years of drought, hailstorms and frost also added to the damage.

Since the construction of canals and tube-wells both State-run and privately owned, the district does not suffer from calamitous famines. Scarcity conditions do occur at times but they are overcome by timely relief measures adopted by the government.

To organise relief a sub divisional officer at the district headquarters acts as officer-in-charge (scarcities) working under the supervision of the collector. Relief to the people takes several forms, such as suspension and remission of land revenue, distribution of loans and gratuitous relief and *taqavi* and providing employment to the needy in the relief works such as construction of roads, buildings, etc. specially started for the purpose.

The following statement gives the details of the calamities the area affected by them and the relief given by the government :

Year	Kind of calamity	Area affected (in ha.)	Gratuitous relief (in Rs)	House subsidy (in Rs)	<i>Taqavi</i> distributed (in Rs)
1970-71	Heavy flood	N.A.	22,000	5,250	2,72,750
1971-72	Flood and heavy rain	24,964	1,00,600	2,47,000	1,40,000
1972-73	Flood and drought	65,172	6,45,000	50,000	6,46,855
1973-74	Flood and drought	72,445	3,200	97,000	1,05,000
1974-75	Flood and drought	2,55,346	40,000	69,000	3,40,000
1975-76	Heavy rain	16,783	43,300	40,000	3,75,000
1976-77	Flood and heavy rain	23,245	82,365	65,525	65,150
1977-78	Heavy rain	4,36,174	30,000	49,000	61,150

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Old-time Industries

In ancient India the villages were self-sufficient economic units. Cloth, agricultural implements and other necessities of life required for the villagers were produced in the villages themselves. The potters, weavers, carpenters, smiths, stone-carvers, dressers of hides, tanners and leather workers, etc., turned out goods of their trade such as pots, cloth, agricultural implements, metal wares, carved and inlaid stones, shoes, articles of leather and other types of handmade goods and were generally remunerated in kind, the usual commodity being grain which was given at the time of the two harvests—*rabi* and *kharif*.

The district being a famous sugar-cane producing area in the State, sugar refining was by far the most important industry here till the beginning of the present century. Cultivators crushed their own cane and boiled the juice and prepared *khandsari* (indigenous white sugar) or *gur* (jaggery). Since the beginning of the present century the *bel* system prevalent in Bareilly and Budaun districts was adopted in this district. The *bel* owner took the raw sugar-cane juice from the cultivators and boiled it down into *rab* at his *bel* (the term given to a collection of mills and a boiling house). The greater part of the raw juice in the district was converted into *rab* (which is of a thinner consistency and is used chiefly for the manufacture of raw sugar and molasses). The *rab* was taken to the factory in earthen vessels for conversion into *khand* or refined sugar. It was then filtered through blankets in a masonry tank and the drained *rab* was placed in coarse woollen bags and subjected to pressure, the treacle being thus separated from the *putri* or crystals. The former was generally made into an inferior quality of *gur* while the latter was again drained in a receptacle called a *khanchi*, containing *stwar* (river weed), which produced a partial fermentation and aided in decolourising the crystals. The syrup filtering through the *khanchi* was called *galawat* and this was reboiled into *rab* which was again refined into an inferior sort of *khand*. The local manufacturers for the most

part confined themselves to the production of this *khand* or *kachchi chini*.

The Rosa Sugar and Rum Factory, established in 1805 at Rausar commonly called Rosa, near Shahjahanpur was one of the largest factories in the country. In 1857, the factory at Rosa was burnt down and was reconstructed in 1862. In 1903 the factory employed 632 hands.

The other manufactures of the district have been of little importance, the only notable being that connected with the textile industries. The cotton cloth made by the indigenous weavers in towns and villages was the ordinary coarse kind locally known as *garha* and *gazi*. In a few places cotton printing trade was also carried on. After the advent of the British rule in the country the local cotton textile and printing trades suffered to the point of extinction due to the apathy of the rulers and the competition with English and European factory-made fabrics. Woollen manufactures were confined only to coarse blankets and woollen bags used in the preparation of *khandsari*. The city was also noted for mattings made of *baib* grass, imported from the *tarai* of the Sarda in the foot-hills of the Himalayas.

The pottery made in this district was of the ordinary description and the only points to notice were the occasional use of a vitreous glaze and the mixture of the river sand with the clay so as to enable it to stand the heat of the kiln without cracking. The pottery was decorated by painting in various designs at Tilhar and to a small extent at Shahjahanpur and other places. The manufacture of crude glass was carried on to a very small extent but a fair amount of the ordinary glass bangles was produced.

Of more importance were the manufactures in iron and steel. Jalalabad was celebrated for a kind of *kofrigari* or inlaid work, especially in the case of sword handles and arms. There were many *saiqalgars* (artisans) at Shahjahanpur who turned out large numbers of knives, scissors, *sarotas* (betel-nut cutters), *ankush* (elephant goad), cutlery, agricultural implements, horse shoes and wheel tyres. In the past, these articles were exported to Delhi, Lahore, Meerut, Lucknow, Kanpur and elsewhere. Shahjahanpur and Tilhar were also notable for the manufacture of wooden articles especially in the shape of lacquered and painted furniture, bedstead legs and the like.

Many of these industries are still in existence, though in a truncated form. Among the causes of the decadence of these traditional

and indigenous industries the most important is that the British and Europeans by the introduction and import of foreign goods and articles into India threw the local weavers, the cotton dressers, the carpenters, the blacksmiths and the shoe makers, etc., out of employment as every description of indigenous artisan was reduced to beggary. The English brought with them the fruits of the industrial revolution which had taken place in Europe. In this country also the machine age ushered in the substitution of machines for manual labour. The process of mechanisation of industries started by the British has, over the years, engulfed nearly every facet of the industrial activity. It has increased in recent years with the advancement of science and technology.

Power

Electricity was first introduced in the district in 1929. The important sources of electricity supply in the whole of State are the Rihand hydro-electric power station and the thermal power stations at Obra, Harduaganj and Panki working under the State electricity board. In 1956 and 1957 a number of other localities in the district were provided with electric power. There were six power sub stations in the district in 1977.

The following statement gives the years of electrification, number of consumers and number of units consumed in the electrified towns of the district in 1977 :

Name of town	Year of electrification	Number of consumers	Number of units consumed
Shahjahanpur	1929	9,346	89,87,637
Powayan	1956	1,072	10,07,348
Tilhar	1956	1,426	11,86,756
Jalalabad	1956	786	9,27,435
Kant	1957	76	1,65,717
Khudaganj	1957	248	2,89,407
Katra	1957	398	3,83,784

LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES

In 1977-78 there were only two large-scale industries in the district, producing sugar and alcoholic spirit, with a total capital investment of about Rs 1,55,64,498 and employing about 1,029 workers in them.

Sugar

The Rosa sugar works, Rosa, Shahjahanpur was established in 1805. The capital investment in 1977-78 amounted to Rs 1,10,76,498. It employed 825 persons in that year and produced sugar worth Rs 1,85,46,231 consuming sugar-cane valued at Rs 1,33,50,445.

Spirit

The Carew and Co. Ltd., Rosa, Shahjahanpur was also established in 1805. The capital investment amounted to Rs 44,88,000 and 204 persons were employed in it in 1977-78. In that year spirit worth Rs 90,45,596 was produced consuming molasses and sugar-cane juice worth about Rs 3,66,038.

SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES

A small-scale unit normally has an outlay of Rs 10,00,000 or less and employs up to 50 persons. In the urban areas of the district a large number of small-scale industries have come up in recent years and the increasing demand for various kinds of consumer goods of daily use has enabled them to flourish well. However, in the early years of the seventies these industries in the wake of rising prices of raw materials and their scarce supply faced much hardships.

In 1977-78 there were about 319 small-scale industrial units in the district which had a total capital investment of about Rs 3,35,37,201. They provided employment for about 7,354 workers and produced goods worth Rs 19,00,12,500. The liberal financial assistance, making of raw-material available at reasonable rates and providing marketing facilities by the government in the post-Independence period have enabled these small industrial units to withstand the cut-throat competition of the large-scale industrial concerns. A brief account of some of the important small-scale industries is given below.

Agro-based Units

In 1977-78 there were 164 units engaged in processing, extracting and manufacturing rice, pulses, edible oil and *khandsari* with a total investment of about Rs 2,66,41,438 and employing 5,555 persons. In the same year these units used raw materials worth Rs 9,00,000 and produced rice, edible oil, *khandsari*, pulses worth an amount of Rs 12,98,81,500.

Textile Units

Ready-made garments and carpets are made by five units at Shahjahanpur. In 1977-78 these units had a total investment of about Rs 2,61,000 and employed 202 persons. These units produced goods worth Rs 4,00,00,000 by using raw materials worth Rs 2,00,000 in the same year.

Timber-based Units

There were 11 such units located at Jalalabad and Shahjahanpur, with a total investment of about Rs 3,13,436 and employing 63 persons, engaged in the making of furniture and building goods in 1977-78. In the same year these units used wood worth about Rs 1,00,000 as raw material and produced goods valued at Rs 1,50,000.

Mineral-based Units

Sulphur roll from raw sulphur was prepared by two units with a total investment of about Rs 2,86,000 employing 17 persons in 1977-78. In the same year these units produced sulphur roll worth Rs 30,000 by using raw sulphur worth Rs 20,000.

Engineering Units

In 1977-78 there were 56 units at Shahjahanpur, Banda, Powayan, Tilhar and Miranpur Katra engaged in the manufacture of crusher parts, agricultural implements, tube-well parts, etc. These units had a total investment of about Rs 29,33,050 and employed 428 persons in that year. These units produced goods worth Rs 93,81,000 by using pig iron, iron and steel and gun metal as raw materials worth about Rs 47,00,000 in 1977-78.

Chemical Units

Candle, soap and plastic goods were manufactured by 31 units located at Shahjahanpur, Jalalabad and Tilhar. In 1977-78 these units had a total investment of about Rs 11,13,389 and employed 140 persons. Finished goods worth Rs 20,70,000 after using paraffin wax, soda and silicate as raw material worth Rs 14,00,000, were produced by them in that year.

Glass and Ceramics Units

There were 13 such units at Jalalabad, Powayan and Miranpur Katra engaged in manufacturing tiles, bricks and cement *jali* in 1977-78. These units had a total investment of about Rs 8,51,000 and employed 644 persons in that year. Using cement and clay as raw

material worth about Rs 25,00,000, these units produced goods worth Rs 75,00,000 in that year.

Other Industries

In 1977-78 there were 37 small-scale units engaged in manufacturing steel boxes, iron sheet containers and Ayurvedic medicines located at Shahjahanpur, Banda, Powayan, Jalalabad and Tilhar. These units had an investment of about Rs 11,37,888 and employed about 305 persons. Goods worth Rs 10,00,000 were produced by using raw materials worth about Rs 7,00,000 in the same year.

Village and Cottage Industries

Village and cottage industries in the district, as elsewhere, are concerned with the processing of raw materials by the adoption of simple techniques. Such industries include mostly the handicrafts handed down from generation to generation. They are generally located in the homes of villagers, thus providing a decentralised base for the economic development of the district particularly the rural areas. With increasing mechanization in the industries there is growing need for finding avenues of employment for those who are displaced by the machinery. The cottage industries besides providing a supplementary source of income are also a bulwork against the ever increasing menace of unemployment. Handicraft industries have flourished for long and most of them have in recent years also switched over to modern techniques of production. Besides being managed by individual householders with the help of their own family members they are now run by co-operative societies receiving guidance and financial help from the government and various financial corporations.

A brief account of the registered co-operative cottage and village industrial units in the district is given as under.

Gur and Khandsari

It is one of the very old and important industries of the district. There were 60 registered co-operative gur and *khandsari* units in the district in 1977-78 with a total capital investment of Rs 93,571 and employing 600 persons in sugar-cane crushing season. Sugar-cane worth Rs 1,80,000 was used by these units and gur and *khandsari* worth Rs 4,00,000 was produced by them in that year.

Leather Goods

With the advent of the large-scale leather goods manufacturing concerns in the field, the indigenous leather trade has very much declined particularly in the urban areas. In the villages it is, however, still persisting but on a very moderate scale. In 1977-78 there were 10 co-operative units in the district engaged in the making of shoes and footwears with a total capital outlay of Rs 18,000 and employing 40 persons. The units used raw materials worth Rs 50,000 and produced shoes and footwears worth Rs 1,00,000 in the same year.

Washing Soap

Soap was made by five co-operative units in the district with a total capital investment of Rs 66,025 and employing 20 persons in 1977-78. These units used raw materials worth Rs 2,00,000 and produced washing soap worth Rs 3,50,000 in that year.

Lime

There were three co-operative units in the district which produced lime with a total capital investment of Rs 24,000 and employed 12 persons in 1977-78. Raw materials worth Rs 72,000 were used by them and goods worth Rs 1,00,000 were produced in the same year.

Pottery

Besides a large number of indigenous village potters there were in the district in 1977-78, 38 registered co-operative pottery units with a total capital of Rs 31,450 engaged in the making of earthen-ware. These units used raw materials worth Rs 1,90,000 and produced goods valued at Rs 3,00,000 and employed 152 persons in that year.

Ban Making

Ban making is also one of the oldest and important cottage industries in the district. *Moonj*—the grass from which *ban* is made—grows wild in the district. There was only one registered co-operative unit engaged in the production of *ban* in the district in 1977-78. Total capital investment was Rs 4,895 and 10 persons were employed in it. Raw material worth Rs 20,000 was used and *ban* worth Rs 30,000 was produced in the same year.

INDUSTRIAL ESTATES

Government established one industrial estate at Rosa in the district in 1965-66. Various facilities and concessions for the establishment of small-scale industries are provided by government, banks and other financial institutions. Besides making available power and raw materials at concessional rates, assistance for the marketing of the finished goods is also provided.

The following statement gives some particulars relating to 1977-78 regarding the Rosa Industrial Estate :

Location and area (hectares)	Name of industry	Name of products	Number of units	Value of production (in Rs)	Number of persons employed
Rosa (Shahjahanpur) 12.47	Aluminium	Aluminium tonails	1	85,000	15
	Agricultural implements	Agricultural implements	1	25,000	4
	Handloom	Handloom cloth	1	20,000	5
	Wooden furniture	Wooden furniture	1	18,000	5

Aid to Industries

Industrial units need finances for creation of fixed assets as well as for meeting their working expenses. Financial assistance for creation of fixed assets is provided by the financial institutions in addition to the funds arranged by entrepreneurs themselves. Advances for working capital are generally obtained from the commercial banks.

There are a number of schemes which provide the entrepreneurs fixed as well as working capital. These include loans by the Central Government through the Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI), Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI) and Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (ICICI). The loans advanced to small and medium-size units by these institutions not only carry a concessional rate of interest but terms of repayment are also easy, i.e. longer repayment period, lower service charges and security margin, etc. The interest charged in the industrially

backward districts is one per cent lower than the normal rate of interest. The initial grace period of commencement of repayment of loan instalments have been extended normally from two years to five years as also the period of repayment from 5 to 7 years. There is a reduction of 50 per cent on the normal service charges also. IDBI also subscribes to a large extent to the risk capital of the projects, and bears the cost of consultancy services initially which may be reimbursed later on when the projects reach the profitability stage.

The financial assistance by the State government is routed through the Uttar Pradesh Financial Corporation, Kanpur. The corporation is authorised to grant financial assistance to industrial concerns operating in the State, irrespective of whether they are constituted as public limited companies, private limited companies, co-operative establishment partnership or sole proprietary concerns. The corporation has been authorised to carry on and transact various types of business activities, but till now it has confined its activities to advancement of loans to industrial concerns and issue of deferred payment guarantees to industrial units for the purchase of indigenous machinery from the manufacturers and suppliers and to acting as an agent of the State government.

The amount of loans and period for repayment varies from time to time depending on the nature of industry. The interest rate of the corporation also varies from time to time, keeping in consideration the prevailing bank rate. Units in the industrially backward districts are entitled to a number of special concessions. These include lower rate of interest and longer grace and repayment period.

The corporation has two types of schemes for financing industries namely, the 'corporation loan' and the 'agency loan' schemes. Under the former it provides assistance out of its own funds to both small and other types of industries, while under the latter it grants loans to small-scale industries alone as agent to the State government. Under the latter scheme three types of loans, namely, the 'liberalised loans' 'ordinary loans' and 'power-loom loans' are advanced. 'Liberalised loans' are granted for creation of fixed assets and also for creating working capital for export-oriented, defence-oriented and agro-based industries. 'Ordinary loans' are primarily sanctioned for purchase of fixed assets and in special cases for use

as working capital. 'Power-loom loans' are given only to registered co-operative societies for creation of fixed assets.

Applications for loans under the 'corporation loan' scheme are made directly to the U. P. Financial Corporation, while for loans under the 'agency loan' scheme it is routed through the directorate of industries, Kanpur, for their recommendations to the corporation for sanction.

The following statement gives an idea of the loan assistance provided to the district by the U. P. Financial Corporation, Kanpur under various schemes :

Schemes	No. of units	Loan disbursement as on 31st March, 1974 (in lakhs of rupees)
Corporation loan scheme	7	9.14
Liberalised loan scheme	7	4.17
Ordinary loan scheme	1	0.08

Interest-free loans are advanced by the PICUP (Pradeshia Industrial And Investment Corporation of Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow) to new units. The loan is to be repaid in three equal instalments, the first being due after 12 years from the date of disbursement of final instalment of the loan.

The entrepreneurs also approach the nationalised and other banks, as and when the need arises, and the banks after their own scrutiny and on the recommendations from the district officials, sanction loans both for the fixed and working capital.

The other institutions which provide technical and financial assistance for starting new or developing the already existing industries in the district are the U. P. Small-scale Industries Corporation, Kanpur and the National Small Industries Corporation, New Delhi. Financial assistance and loans and grants under various intensive industrial development programmes of the State government, industrial co-operative societies and 'credit guarantee scheme' of the State Bank of India are also available.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL AND PLANS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

The industrial potential of the district is based on infrastructure facilities and available resources which the district possesses.

In a developing economy, means of communications play an important role because of quick movement of raw material to the production centres and finished goods to the markets. There is a network of roads and the district is also served by both metre and broad gauge railway lines. In the matter of power too the district is not deficient, as it gets sufficient electric power from the State Electricity Board.

The district is one of the industrially backward districts of the State. It is predominantly agricultural and a surplus producer of food-grains but poor in mineral resources. Cereal and non-cereal crops provide the raw material which can be processed and utilised by the small-scale units. Cash crops such as sugar-cane, potato, oil-seeds, ground-nut are also grown in the district in appreciable quantities. Hides, skins and bones are also available in sufficient quantities. Most of the raw material is sent out of the district to other big industrial towns like Kanpur and Lucknow, and nearly all the consumer goods of daily use are brought within the district from outside.

In view of the above, the schemes of industrial development of the district will have to be so designed that they ensure firstly, a better utilisation of the locally available raw materials, and secondly, development of consumer goods industries to manufacture the consumer goods needed locally. Consequently, for the industrial development of the district industrial units may be divided in two broad categories, resource-based or raw material-based industrial units and demand-based industrial units.

Sugar-cane is one of the bumper crops of the district and as a result *khandsari* units have cropped up in almost all parts of the district. But many of these units are operating below capacity and substantial quantities of sugar-cane go out of the district for want of timely utilisation locally. Bagasse released by the *khandeeri* units also needs effective utilisation. Most of it is presently being burnt and a lot of it is being sent to other districts for manufacturing straw-board. This necessitates the setting up of at least one straw-board unit in the district.

At Khudaganj situated amidst rich paddy area, a number of rice mills can be profitably established. Another ancillary enterprise with potential at this place may be units for extracting rice-bran oil. Bone-meal and leather tanning units are also profitable enter-

prises which can be started in the district in view of ample availability of bones, hides and skins.

The size of the market, levels of income, educational standard, degree of urbanisation and the habits and outlook of consumers are a few important factors which determine the need and demand for industries and a number of industries based on local demands and needs can be set up to meet institutional and sectoral demands. Demand-based units which may find scope in the district comprise a wide range of industries, as at present almost the entire stock of consumer goods comes from outside the district. These openings can be in the fields of hosiery and knitwear, sanitary equipment, furniture and hospital equipment, polythene bags and packing cases, pottery, fertiliser mixtures, nuts and bolts, *surkhi*, *chuna*, cattle-feed and chicken-feed, packed vegetables, pickles, jam and jelly production.

Units manufacturing agricultural implements, steel pipes, tractors and tube-well pipes and parts and repair workshop-cum-service stations are in increasing demand for catering to the needs of developing mechanisation of agriculture. There are various other industries like tyre retreading, making of stationery articles such as exercise books, registers, ink and chalk sticks, which may find a profitable market in the district.

WELFARE OF INDUSTRIAL LABOUR

There is a labour inspector in the district to watch the interests of labourers and ensure implementation of various Central and State labour laws and their welfare schemes, which have been introduced in the district from time to time. He also keeps liaison between employees and employers in the industrial concerns. A detailed description of the labour welfare enactments finds place in chapter XVII of this Gazetteer.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

BANKING AND FINANCE

History of Banking

Details about the ancient indigenous banking in the district are not available, but it may be presumed that the general trade practices which prevailed in various trading centres of northern India also obtained in this district and they throw light on the gradual evolution of banking system in the district. Giving and taking of loans was in vogue even in ancient times and the word *rina* (debt) is mentioned repeatedly from Rigvedic times onwards.¹

It is known that as far back as the fifth and the sixth centuries B. C., wealth was hoarded in the houses usually under the ground in brazen, copper or earthen jars. In those days money-lending was considered ignoble. Then even as now public opinion frowned upon usury.

The business of dealing in money was highly developed in the medieval period and money dealers were found in all the centres of trade.² Merchants and middlemen exploited the artisans and this exploitation was more rampant in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In the Mughal period there were nine treasuries for cash payments, of which one each was located at Agra and Farrukhabad, and the district, in all probability, received its supply of coins from these treasuries.

The gradual strengthening of the British trade in the nineteenth century saw the decline of the indigenous banking carried on by private bankers.

After the cession by the nawab of Avadh of the whole of Rohilkhand to the East India Company in 1802 and the formation of the district in 1813-14, there was a growing need for institutions for transacting business on state account. The government established its own treasuries and subtreasuries in the district, which for more than a century, were the main centres for the collection and ex-

1. Jain, L. C. : *Indigenous Banking In India* (London, 1929), p.3

2. Moreland, W. H. : *India At the Death of Akbar* (Delhi, 1962), p. 55

penditure of governmental money. The collector was made in charge of the treasuries and he was assisted by a treasury officer and some other staff.

The expanding trade with England attracted foreign bankers who established banks which mostly financed foreign trade and did not serve the requirements of the local inhabitants or help their economy. A considerable number of persons from the local trading community also operated as *mahajans* or indigenous bankers. One of the reasons why the banking in the district suffered was that the local bankers did not accept deposits and their utility as banking agents was limited to lending of money only. In the absence of any discount market, they could not adjust themselves to the expansion and contraction of credit needs. The Allahabad Bank, Ltd., the first commercial bank, was established at Shahjahanpur in 1865. Ever since then a number of banks have opened their offices in the district. Thus in 1915 the Zila Co-operative Bank, Ltd., in 1935 the Bareilly Corporation Bank, Ltd., in 1948 the Kashi Nath Seth Bank, Ltd., and the Punjab National Bank, Ltd., and in 1952 the State Bank of India opened their branches at Shahjahanpur. Banking was hitherto more or less confined to the town only. In 1960 there were a total of 7,236 depositors using the aforesaid 6 banks in the district, which had a total deposit of Rs 10,76,82,788.86 in that year.

After the nationalisation of 14 major commercial banks in 1969, the commercial banks have opened large number of branches in the rural areas of the district also. In 1978, State Bank of India had six, Bank of Baroda 13, Allahabad Bank three, and Union Bank of India, Bank of India, Punjab National Bank and Central Bank of India had one branch each in the district. Of the non-nationalised banks, there were five branches of the Kashi Nath Seth Bank, Ltd., two of the Bareilly Corporation Bank, Ltd., and one each of the Hindustan Commercial Bank, Ltd., and the Oriental Bank of Commerce, Ltd., The Zila Co-operative Bank had ten and the Uttar Pradesh Co-operative Land Development Bank four branches in the district in that year.

Rural Indebtedness

Although the economic condition of the agriculturists of the district in the second half of the nineteenth century had improved as compared to the past, yet indebtedness was still rife and was more or less looked upon as a natural state of affairs. Loans were taken

mainly for marriages, purchase of cattle or for buying the necessities of life. There were at that time no laws to ameliorate the condition of the farmers till about two or three decades back and the indebtedness of the agriculturists in the rural areas kept on increasing. *Banias* (traders) made enormous gains at the expense of the old proprietary classes and cultivators. At the close of the last century, the tendency of passing the land into the hands of the people of trading class was more or less general all over the district. They had no connection with the land either by tradition or by training. Being money-lenders, they induced and advanced loans and charged exorbitant rates of interest and when their dues were not realised within the stipulated time, which generally happened, they, with law on their side, managed to get the possession of land and dispossess the zamindars or cultivators.

The usually prevalent mode of repayment of loans in the district, was the *kisti* (instalment) system, according to which a loan of Rs 10 was repaid in 12 monthly instalments of a rupee each, the interest being nearly 20 per cent per annum. With approved customers and fair security, the rate of interest was frequently reduced appreciably and it was only rarely that formal bonds were entered into for repayment. The rates of interest were much the same as those obtaining in other adjacent districts. In petty cash loans the rates varied from 12 to as much as 37.5 per cent per annum according to the status of the borrower and the risk involved. When articles were pledged as security, the rate was lower, usually not exceeding 15 per cent. In cases of larger transactions, without a mortgage, the rate of interest varied from 12 to 25 per cent per annum. When movable property was pawned, the rate of interest varied from 9 to 12 per cent per annum, and when immovable property was mortgaged, the rate of interest varied from six to nine per cent per annum. On grain loans the *sawai* system (repayment at one and one-fourth times more) was in vogue. If a cultivator borrowed Rs 20 from the money-lender on the first of Aagrahayana and repaid grain worth Rs 25 on the first of Vaisakha, he paid interest at the rate of 50 per cent per annum. If a hard pressed cultivator mortgaged his crop, at times he had to pay the interest at *deorha* rates (1.5 times) or 50 per cent of interest for six months against one crop. The money-lender also manipulated the advances and payments in such a way that he could derive the maximum profit from the existing prices of grain. When the prices were low, he took the payment in kind, and when prices

were rising he took payment in cash, thus reaping the advantage under either condition.

By the beginning of the present century agriculturists were generally benefited by the rise in prices. The economic depression of the thirties weakened the economic condition of the agriculturists. They were unable to repay the principal amount of money borrowed and most of them failed even to pay the interest on the loans taken. The high prices of agricultural products which prevailed during the Second World War gave the agriculturists good returns in terms of money but because of general inflationary tendency, high prices had to be paid by them for the necessities like cloth, oil, agricultural implements, live-stock, etc. Large number of villagers joined the army during the war and a considerable amount of money was remitted by them to their dependents and relatives in the villages which enabled them to repay their old debts to some extent. The general rise of prices of agricultural commodities in latter years has helped the cultivators but to a very limited extent on account of the cultivators being left with little savings due to considerable rise in the cost of consumer goods and agricultural inputs. The per capita income of an average farmer has no doubt gone up with the increase in production and rise in prices of agricultural products, but it has been largely offset by the enormous rise in the prices of other necessities of life.

The Reserve Bank of India has estimated that the family of an average cultivator was indebted to the extent of Rs 501.89 in 1971, of which only Rs 9.31 were accepted in kind and the rest valued at Rs 492.58 was borrowed in cash. The total assets of the family of an agriculturist was estimated to amount to Rs 20,812. The assets of an average agricultural labourer's household, whose number in the district is considerable, have been estimated at Rs 1,867.24 and he is indebted to the extent of Rs 246.6.

Urban Indebtedness

No authoritative information is available in regard to urban indebtedness in the district, except that it is confined mainly to people of the middle and lower income groups, the former being the chief victims, as the adjustment of their fluctuating expenditure becomes increasingly difficult because of their more or less fixed incomes. Uncertain price conditions and the general inflationary trend compel them to borrow money even for purposes like children's

education, medical treatment, marriages and other social obligations. Gambling and drinking are also not uncommon among the wage earners and labourers in the urban areas—vices which aggravate the financial condition of these people compelling them to resort to borrowing. The main sources for borrowing money are the professional money-lenders, friends and relatives. The rate of interest varies, as usual, with the amount of loan, the period of its repayment and the standing of the borrower.

The Reserve Bank of India survey in 1971 estimated that the average value of the total assets of the household of an urban artisan was Rs 2,797.98, and he was indebted to the extent of Rs 300.71.

Debt-relief Legislations

The government made some attempt to regulate the terms and conditions of money-lending through a legislation in 1918 and the Usurious Loans Act of that year authorised the courts, if it was found that the interest was excessive and transaction between the parties substantially unfair, to reopen the transaction and to relieve the debtor of all liability in respect of any excessive interest. By an amendment of 1926, the Act was made applicable to all parties seeking relief from mortgage. But the Act did not provide a satisfactory definition of the terms 'excessive' and 'unfair', which made it difficult for courts to determine whether a transaction was unfair or the interest excessive. An amendment effected in 1934, made the Act applicable generally to all debtors and it also provided definite limits beyond which the rate of interest would be deemed to be 'excessive'.

The other enactments that followed the economic depression of the thirties of the present century were the United Provinces Agriculturists Relief Act, 1934, the U. P. Temporary Postponement of Execution of Decrees Act, 1937, and the United Provinces Debt Redemption Act, 1940. They enabled a considerable reduction of rates of interest and fixed easy instalments for the payment of debts. They also protected the person and property of the debtors from being proceeded against in execution of decrees.

To regulate rural indebtedness the State Government introduced further reforms and the Uttar Pradesh Regulation of Money-lending Act, 1976, was enforced in the State. The Act requires the money-

lenders to get themselves registered as money-lenders. Among other things the Act provides for fixation of rate of interest on loans. It also prohibits money-lenders from molesting debtors on the pay-day near their place of work. This Act has gone a long way in checking the exploitation of debtors at the hands of money-lenders in the district.

To provide for a moratorium on recovery of debts payable by landless agricultural labourers, small and marginal farmers and rural artisans, the Uttar Pradesh Rural Weaker Sections (Moratorium on Recovery of Debts) Act, 1975 was passed. Subsequently it was decided that the debts payable by landless agricultural labourers, marginal farmers and rural artisans should be totally liquidated and the debts payable by small farmers should be scaled down in accordance with their paying capacity. It was also considered necessary to provide relief to rickshaw pullers, scavengers and other urban workers. With this end in view, the Uttar Pradesh Debt Relief Ordinance, 1977 was promulgated. Subsequently a comprehensive Act called the Uttar Pradesh Debt Relief Act, 1977 was passed, taking the place of the ordinance, the Uttar Pradesh Landless Agricultural Labourers Debt Relief Act, 1975 and the Uttar Pradesh Rural Weaker Sections (Moratorium on Recovery of Debts) Act, 1975.

ROLE OF PRIVATE MONEY-LENDERS AND FINANCIERS

In the towns the banks, the local money-lenders and other private agencies provide credit. In the rural areas friends, relatives, professional money-lenders, the well-to-do cultivators, *banias* (traders), commission agents and co-operative societies are the sources the borrower turns to in time of need.

The government and the co-operative institutions have made endeavours to eliminate the private village money-lenders but they still continue to be indispensable in the rural life. The rate of interest charged by private money-lenders and financiers generally varies from 36 to 72 per cent per annum.

Commercial Banks

In 1978, there were 35 branches of 11 commercial banks in the district. The location of the branches of each commercial bank

in the district is given below :

Name of commercial bank	Location of branches
State Bank of India	Tilhar, Powayan, Jalalabad, Katra and two branches at Shahjahanpur
<i>Nationalised Banks :</i>	
Bank of Baroda	Khudaganj, Khutar, Kant, Banda, Powayan, Sindhauli, Nigohi, Kalan, Mirzapur, Katra, Allahganj and two branches at Shahjahanpur
Allahabad Bank	Three branches at Shahjahanpur
Bank of India	Shahjahanpur
Union Bank of India	Shahjahanpur
Punjab National Bank	Shahjahanpur
Central Bank of India	Shahjahanpur
<i>Non-nationalised Banks :</i>	
The Kashi Nath Seth Bank, Ltd.	Katra, Powayan, Jalalabad and two branches at Shahjahanpur
The Bareilly Corporation Bank, Ltd.	Shahjahanpur and Tilhar
The Hindustan Commercial Bank, Ltd.	Shahjahanpur
The Oriental Bank of Commerce, Ltd.	Shahjahanpur

In the past the advances made by the banks were mostly meant for the merchants and traders. After the nationalisation of the banks in 1969, the trend changed and by 1976-77, as much as 70.4 per cent of the total advances were diverted to agriculture, small-scale industries, transport, export, retail trade and small business, professional and self-employed persons and setting up of industrial estates. The total advances and deposits in the district in 1976-77 were Rs 6,60,97,000 and Rs 13,22,17,000 respectively. The credit deposit ratio was about 50.0 per cent in that year.

The following statement gives the amount of advances given to different sectors of economy in the district in 1976-77 :

Sectors	Amount (in Rs)	Number of accounts
Agriculture :		
(a) Direct	2,31,28,000	5,810
(b) Indirect	24,21,000	32
Small-scale industries	1,67,93,000	543
Export	1,000	1
Road and water transport	7,01,000	162
Retail trade and small business	28,52,000	1,087
Professional and self-employed persons	5,57,000	671
Setting up of industrial estates	67,000	1

Co-operative Movement

The co-operative movement in the district was initiated with the establishment of village banks in the early years of the present century. The experiment proved encouraging. To expedite the co-operative movement in the country suited to the local conditions, the Co-operative Credit Societies Act was passed in 1904 which was amended by the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912 and this statute forms the basis of the present day co-operative credit societies in the district.

The co-operative movement gained momentum after Independence. The number of co-operative societies has shown a regular increase upto 1960, but after this the number of co-operative societies shows a decrease as the smaller societies were amalgamated to form larger viable societies.

The following statement shows the progress of the co-operative movement since the fifties of this century :

Year	Number of primary co-operative societies	Number of members	Loans advanced (in lakhs of Rs)	Rate of interest
1950	648	24,223	6	6.7
1960	1,336	62,506	45	7
1970	469	95,112	122	9
1977	115	1,32,114	231	13

Other Co-operative Institutions

The co-operative institutions are, now-a-days, an integral part of the society. There are a number of societies working in different walks of life and are playing an important role in the welfare of people. District Shahjahanpur is also served by a number of co-operative institutions.

The District Co-operative Federation was established at Shahjahanpur in 1948 as an apex institution for consumer co-operative activities in the district. The federation purchases and sells various agricultural and consumer goods. There was also one Central Consumer Store, which was started in 1964, at Shahjahanpur. To help the sale and purchase of consumer goods, there were two Mahila Primary Co-

operative Consumer Stores and 19 Primary Co-operative Consumer Stores working in the district in 1977-78.

The following statement gives an idea of the consumers co-operative stores in the district in 1978 :

Particulars	Achievement at the end of IV Five-year Plan	Achievement as on 31st March, 1978
Number of consumer co-operative societies	19	22
Number of members	6,000	6,500
Share capital (in Rs)	2,45,000	3,20,000
Value of commodity sold (in Rs)	42,45,000	47,00,000

There were four Co-operative Marketing Societies in 1977-78 in the district. These marketing societies have checked the malpractices in *mandis* (big grain markets) and have also arranged fair price to the farmers for their produce. Food-grains, chemical fertilizers and other consumer goods were also sold by these marketing societies and cultivators also marketed their produce through them.

The following statement gives the location of the four marketing societies, their starting year and the value of produce marketed by them in 1977-78 :

Location	Starting year	Value of pro- duce sold (Rs in lakhs)
Shahjahanpur	1957	0.90
Tilhar	1957	2.99
Jalalabad	1961	8.99
Powayan	1975	39.63

District Shahjahanpur was also served by 102 Co-operative Primary Milk Societies with a total membership of 3,200 in 1977-78. These societies are collecting milk from ten different milk collecting centres and selling them through 13 sale depots located in the urban areas of district. There were two Co-operative Rickshaw Puller's Societies in 1977-78. Rickshaws numbering 82 were distributed by these societies to unemployed unskilled persons. The Co-operative Labour Societies, numbering three had provided jobs to about 300 member labourers in 1977-78.

The 30 Co-operative Seed Stores, 38 Co-operative Farming Societies, 37 Co-operative Block Unions and two Co-operative Fishery Societies, were also functioning in the district in that year.

Co-operative Banks

The District Co-operative Bank, Ltd, was established at Shah-jahanpur in 1915. At the beginning of 1978, it had nine branches in the district, which were located at Shahjahanpur, Powayan, Khutar, Kant, Jaitipur, Tilhar, Nigohi, Kalan and Jalalabad. By the end of 1978 an additional branch was added in the district. These banks finance the other co-operative institutions of the district and also provide banking facilities to its member.

The following statement shows the work done by the bank and its branches in the district :

Particulars	Achievement at the end of IV Five-year Plan	Achievement as on 31st March, 1978
Deposit (Rs)	82,14,000	2,96,31,000
Loan distributed		
(a) Short-term (Rs)	1,07,03,000	3,91,98,000
(b) Long-term (Rs)	36,43,000	57,94,000

The Uttar Pradesh State Co-operative Land Development Bank, established in 1964-65, had four branches in the district in 1978, located at Shahjahanpur, Tilhar, Jalalabad and Powayan. The banks provided medium and long-term loans (for 7 to 15 years) at an interest of 9.50 per cent per annum mainly for the development of agriculture. In recent years the bank has also started advancing credit for taking up private minor irrigation schemes like construction of masonry wells, installation of *rahats* (Persian wheels), electric or diesel pumping sets, etc.

The land development banks since their start, advanced a total sum of Rs 3,29,08,000 upto March 31, 1978, to the cultivators in the district for various agricultural and land development purposes.

National Savings Organisation

A number of small savings schemes have been formulated during the last three decades primarily with the object of inculcating

habit of thrift among the people of small income groups and encouraging them to invest their savings in the post-offices, so that the money may be kept in circulation and utilised in the national development schemes. The post-office savings bank scheme has been in operation in the district from the closing years of the last century.

The following statement gives some particulars about different savings schemes in operation in the district as on December 31, 1977 :

Name of scheme	Value (in Rs)	Number of accounts
Seven-year national savings certificates	63,81,963	—
National savings annuity certificates	56,970	—
Time deposits	1,66,01,117	7,171
Recurring deposits	56,61,243	26,020
Cumulative time deposits	28,64,870	6,397
Public Provident Fund	58,602	9
Fixed deposits	3,150	28
Savings Bank Accounts	4,24,33,498	94,557

The following statement shows the per capita saving in the district for the year 1975-76, 1976-77 and 1977-78 :

Year	Per capita saving (in Rs)
1975-76	5.75
1976-77	3.96
1977-78	7.20

Life Insurance

The life insurance business was taken over by the Life Insurance Corporation of India in 1956 and a branch office of the corporation was opened at Shahjahanpur in the same year. The following statement gives an idea of the business done by the Life Insurance Corporation in the district in 1975-76, 1976-77 and 1977-78 :

Year	Total number of persons assured	Total premia deposited (in Rs)	Total amount of business (in Rs)
1975-76	2,697	68,00,000	2,81,89,600
1976-77	2,720	71,00,000	3,37,78,250
1977-78	2,741	75,00,000	2,93,52,000

Government Loans

It has always been a tradition of the rulers from ancient times to provide relief to the agriculturists particularly in periods of distress. After the attainment of Independence in 1947, loans are being advanced not only to tide over the distress but also for development of agricultural economy.

The following statement gives an idea of distribution of *tagavi* (loans) by the government to the cultivators for agricultural development in the district in 1975-76, 1976-77 and 1977-78 :

Year	Amount disbursed (in Rs)
1975-76	3,75,000
1976-77	65,150
1977-78	61,150

Currency and Coinage

Punch marked coins, with one or two figures engraved on them as symbols of the issuing authority were in circulation as far back as the sixth century B. C. The Gupta rulers issued fine coins, which are considered to be of high artistic standard.¹ The weight of the coins in those days was fixed on the system laid down in the *Manu-smriti*. Generally coins of single metal copper, silver or gold were in circulation. The silver coin was known as *purana* or *dhurana* and weighed 32 *raties*.

In the medieval and the period till the advent of the British, there were mainly three types of coins; the *dam* (generally of copper), the rupee (of silver) and the *mohar* (of gold). A rupee comprised 40 *dams* and 10 rupees were computed as equal to a gold *mohar*.

Both, the Bareilly rupee weighing 171.9 grains and the Chandausi rupee weighing 171.1 grains were in circulation in the district. The British rulers issued their own rupee of 180 grains. It comprised of 16 annas and an anna was divided into 12 pies or four paisa (old).

1. Majumdar, R. C. : *Ancient India*, p. 15

The decimal system of coinage was introduced on October 1, 1958. The rupee has been divided into 100 paise. There are coins of one paisa, two, three, five, ten, twenty, twenty-five and fifty paise and one rupee. The currency consists of bank notes and coins of different denominations. The Reserve Bank of India issues notes of the denominations of two, five, ten, twenty, fifty, one hundred, one thousand, five thousand and ten thousand rupees. The notes of the denominations of one thousand, five thousand and ten thousand have been demonetised since January 16, 1978. Currency and coinage are made available to the district through the local branches of State Bank of India, which receives supply of currency notes and coins from the Reserve Bank of India, Kanpur.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

Course of Trade

Before 1863, there were neither railways nor any major metalled roads to connect the district with other important commercial and trade centres of the country. The usual means of communications were the rough unmetalled tracks or the Ramganga. In 1873 the railways were introduced in the country and the district fell on the main broad gauge of the East Indian Railways, which have contributed to a very large extent to the development of the district, particularly the towns of Shahjahanpur, Tilhar and Rosa as important trading centres of the State.

As important market centres in the district Shahjahanpur and Tilhar rank the first two. They are famous for gur and *khandsari* trade. Next to them come the Katra and Khudaganj. Baragaon was once a leading market, but has now sunk to the position of a petty country town market and the same may be said of Jalalabad, which before the coming of the railways held a commanding position on the Rohilkhand trunk road, but at present its importance has much dwindled as it is only a small, regulated country market.

The railways mostly cater to the needs of the trade. Though a considerable volume of trade is also done through roads. The Northern Railways (broad gauge) and the North-Eastern Railway (metre gauge) pass through the district. It is on the main line of the Saharanpur-Mughalsarai section of the Northern Railway. A branch line (broad gauge) also runs from Shahjahanpur to Sitapur. A branch line of the North-Eastern Railway connects the district with Pilibhit.

The main markets and trade centres in the district i.e. Shahjahanpur, Tilhar, Katra, Powayan, Banthra, Rosa and Khudaganj are also stations on these railway lines. There are a number of metalled and unmetalled roads which connect different parts of the district with each other and also link the district with important trading centres of north India.

The agricultural commodities still form a sizeable bulk of the export trade of the district and the chief imports comprise mainly manufactured articles and other consumer goods. Shahjahanpur is well known for its distillery at Rosa, and for gur and *khandsari*.

Exports and Imports

The principal articles of export from the district till recently were *khandsari* and gur. The *khandsari* of Shahjahanpur was well known throughout the country, although the trade had doubtless been adversely affected by the introduction of the factory-made sugar. Other articles of export were food-grains, especially wheat, oil-seeds, timber and other forest produce and the run made at the Rosa distillery.

The following statement gives an idea of the exports of a few commodities (in Rs) from the district in 1977-78 :

Articles	Value (in Rs)
Wheat	70,000
Barley	9,80,000
Gram	44,46,000
Rice	2,64,60,000
<i>Khandsari</i>	66,00,00,000

Paddy, mustard, coal, chemical fertilizers, kerosene, petrol and articles like cloth, machinery, metal goods and agricultural implements, etc., are the chief commodities imported in the district. In 1977-78, the district imported paddy from Mathura and Bareilly districts valued at about Rs 28,800 and mustard from Lakhimpur Kheri, Pilibhit and Agra districts valued at about Rs 31,50,000.

Trade Centres

There were nine regulated markets in the district in 1978, viz. Shahjahanpur, Powayan, Banda, Khutar, Tilhar, Miranpur Katra, Khudaganj, Jalalabad and Allahganj. They are the main distributing centres for all imported and locally produced commodities. In the interior rural areas too, there are numerous smaller local trade centres for the disposal of goods and weekly and bi-weekly bazaars are also held at many villages. These places serve as centres for the exchange of goods and purchase and collection of commodities in the surrounding rural areas. Drugs, medicines, cloth, agricultural implements, fertilisers, machinery, furniture, fruits, vegetables and general merchandise are the main articles of sale in the towns of the district.

The wholesale markets at Shahjahanpur, Tilhar, Miranpur Katra and Khudaganj were the main markets of the district in the past and after the introduction of the railways in 1873, they have gained further importance.

The following statement gives the names of important commodities and their quantity (in quintals) and value (in Rs) handled by the wholesale markets, *mandis* and rural bazaars in the district from July, 1977 to December, 1977:

Commodity	Quantity (in quintal)	Value (in Rs)
Paddy	2,10,311	1,68,24,880
Wheat	1,12,837	1,24,12,070
Barley	66	5,280
Gram	256	35,840
Pous	2	400
Mustard	14	4,200
<i>Khandsari</i>	828	24,840

Retail Trade

The common requirements of the villagers and those residing in the towns of the district are generally supplied by traders and pedlars operating in local bazaars. The wholesale market are also retail trade centres. Of the rural *hats* and bazaars, 113 are smaller ones (number of persons assembling being 100 to 1,000), three are

medium-sized (the number of persons assembling being 1,000 to 1,500) and four are big ones (the number of persons assembling being over 1,500).

The following statement gives the tahsilwise number of *hats* and bazaars in the district in 1971 :

Tahsil	Number of <i>hats</i> and bazaars
Powayan	54
Tilhar	29
Shahjahanpur	15
Jalalabad	22

State Trading

State trading is carried on by purchasing food-grains from the cultivators on a support price. The marketing wing of the food and civil supplies department of the State Government, the Food Corporation of India and the Provincial Co-operative Federation are the main agencies, through which the produce is purchased from the cultivators. Through the fair price shops the government arranges availability of the essential food-grains on reasonable rates.

PRICE CONTROL AND RATIONING

In the wake of the Second World War (1939—45), the prices of all commodities increased. In order to arrest their further rise and to give relief to the consumers, chiefly in the urban areas, the prices of a large number of commodities were controlled and supply of many of them was rationed. Dealers in controlled commodities were to take licence from the government. Various schemes for rationing of food-grains chiefly wheat and its products, rice, sugar and kerosene have been in operation in different areas in the district.

Fair-price Shops

There are a number of fair-price shops in the district. They form the back-bone of the public distribution system of essential commodities like kerosene, sugar, rice, wheat, wheat products, etc.

Fairs

A list of fairs held in the district is given at the end of Chapter III. Most of the fairs are of religious nature. They attract large numbers of traders and businessmen even from outside the district and sweetmeats, handloom cloth, utensils, agricultural implements and general merchandise are marketed in them.

Weights and Measures

The weights and measures in the district till 1960, were not convenient. The local standards of weight, length and area resembled those prevailing in the rest of Rohilkhand. The local weight was generally heavier than the 'company *wazan*' or government seer of 80 *tolas*. The latter had, however, for a long time been adopted for ordinary commercial transactions in the principal towns, though variants were in vogue in the villages, one of the commonest being a seer of $106 \frac{2}{3}$ *tolas*. Frequently two distinct seers were employed for weighing. One of 97 *tolas* was used in the towns and another of 100 *tolas* in the villages, the latter being identical with the Bareilly seer. For weighing gold and silver ornaments, an entirely different standard existed, the unit being the *chawal* and, as its name implies, it was a grain of husked rice. Six *chawals* made one *rati*, (the seed of *mulhati* or Indian liquorice). This is a small red seed with a tiny black spot on it, and is perhaps on that account sometimes called *Chashm-i-khuras* or cock's eye. Eight *ratis* made one *masha*, and 12 *mashas* were equal to one *tola*, and 6 *tolas* made one *chhatak* instead of 5, as by the then government standard.

Measures of length and area were based on the *qadam* or pace (distance, which a woman carrying a filled waterpot on her head covered in two steps), the kos theoretically measured 1,909 *qadams*, but in practice its length varied even within the district. The local yard approximated 39 inches, while the kos in this district was nearly $1 \frac{3}{5}$ miles.

Measures of area, on the other hand, were extremely variable. The common unit was the *gauhani* or *kutchi bigha*, which appeared differently in different villages and even in different parts of the same village. Attempt at standardization was made by fixing the *kutchi bigha* at one-sixth of an acre, but the old variants had by no means been abandoned. In Shahjahanpur and Powayan tahsils, the *kutchi bigha* was generally four-fifteenth of the *pakka bigha*, while in Jalalabad it was usually one-fourth.

The metric system of weights and measures was introduced in the district on October 1, 1960. For the proper enforcement of the new system, the State Government has appointed a controller of weights and measures at Lucknow as head of the department. At the district level functions a senior inspector, assisted by an inspector and some other staff.

Each trader in the district has to submit his weights and measures for periodical inspection, which are stamped after being found accurate.

The following statement gives the seizures and verification work in the district from 1968-69 to 1977-78:

year	Number of weights and measures seized			Number of weights and measures whose verification and stampings was done		
	Weights	Measures	Weighing instruments	Weights	Measures	Weighing instrument
1968-69	2,204	142	746	5,986	327	359
1969-70	612	46	223	7,556	288	2,030
1970-71	410	76	80	8,620	487	2,058
1971-72	465	47	159	9,178	354	2,707
1972-73	257	57	126	2,864	175	684
1973-74	407	62	103	9,700	468	3,054
1974-75	590	64	170	9,940	470	3,552
1975-76	298	34	91	11,754	433	3,475
1976-77	317	61	112	11,338	537	3,875
1977-78	304	97	127	14,004	670	3,973

The following statement gives the number of persons convicted in the district for using illegal weights and measures in last 10 years (1968-69 to 1977-78) :

Year	Number of persons punished by the court	Number of person whose cases were compounded
1968-69	133	69
1969-70	9	97
1970-71	68	149
1971-72	37	245
1972-73	3	113
1973-74	18	297
1974-75	—	373
1975-76	12	297
1976-77	5	300
1977-78	68	283

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Trade Routes and Highways

In early days there were practically no roads worth the name. The route from Budaun through Jalalabad and Kant to Sandila and Lucknow was arecognised higway, but it was generally found preferable to go southwards from Budaun through the doab to Shamsabad and Kannauj. At a later date a road came into existence between Bareilly and Shahjahanpur through Tilhar.

At the time of the advent of the British rule the state of communications was everywhere in bad shape. The tracks which went by the name of roads in most cases wound about through forests and marshes so as to avoid cultivated and culturable land, with the result that they were usually impassable for nearly six months in the year, while the landholders, who were nominally responsible for the upkeep of highways traversing their estates, habitually neglected their duties and were unwilling to depart from the old conditions. The first real improvement in this regard took place with the introduction of one per cent road cess at the First Regular Settlement (1802-3 to 1804-5) and the transference of control of roads to the newly formed road and ferry fund committee. This body did a good deal of valuable work, and laid the foundations of most of the existing highways, but the funds available were insufficient for the work assigned to it. Actually there were no government roads prior to 1857. The immense difficulties in the matter of carriage and transport experienced by the Britishers in the military operations during freedom struggle of 1857, amply served to emphasise the need for improvement. The first undertaking was the construction of the metalled road from Bareilly to Fatehgarh through Katra and Jalalabad; and this was followed by the realignment and metalling of the road from Shahjahanpur to Katra, Jalalabad and Sitapur. The total length of roads in the district in 1881 was about 610 km., which in 1908 rose to 691 km. including 190 km. of metalled roads. The road

from Azizganj to Nibia-ghat measuring about 7 km. in length was metalled in 1912. The metalling of Shahjahanpur-Shahabad road measuring about 13 km. was completed in 1915 and about 10 km. of the Shahjahanpur-Mohamdi road was metalled by 1916. In 1931 the length of metalled roads in the district was about 245 km. It appears that during the succeeding years no attention was paid towards the metalling of the roads, and many of them were placed in the category of unmetalled roads as, after the Independence in 1947, there were only about 207 km. of metalled roads in the district of which nearly 165 km. were under the public works department and the remaining under the erst while district board (now the Zila Parishad). During the period from 1947 to 1963, construction of 88km. of new metalled roads and reconstruction of about 30 km. of old metalled roads was completed. The roads of the district under the public works department are classified as the National highways, the State highways major district roads and other district roads and those under the Zila Parishad as metalled and unmetalled. In 1977-78 the total length of the roads in the district was about 1,025 km. A list of important roads with their length in the district is given in Statement I at the end of the Chapter.

MODES OF CONVEYANCE

The means of conveyance in the early days were palanquins of one kind or the other, horses, camels, elephants, bullock-carts and carriages drawn by horses, bullocks or camels. *Dolis* (litters) and *palkis* (Palanquins) were used by those who could afford such conveyances. Mechanised transport made its appearance in the district in the first decade of the present century. Motor-cars, buses, motor-cycles, bicycles and cycle-rickshaws in the towns and their outskirts are now a common sight. As an economical and easy means of transport the bicycle is by far the most popular particularly among students, small traders, washermen, milkmen, etc., and is also hired out on hourly, daily and monthly rates. Cycle-rickshaws are also much in demand. They have to a great extent have driven many *ekkas* and *tongas* off the roads. *Dolis* and *palkis* once used by the rich, may now be seen only on the occasions of such marriages as are still performed in the orthodox style.

In the rural areas the bullock-cart is still a multipurpose vehicle. It is employed for different agricultural purposes like carrying manure,

grain, fodder and building materials, as also for the conveyance of people at the time of illness, pilgrimages, fairs, festivals, and marriages. Cycle-rickshaws too have made their appearance in the rural areas. The bicycle has come into common use in the villages. Tractors, though solely meant for agricultural purposes, are also used as a means of transport in the rural areas.

In the urban areas vehicles have to be registered with the local bodies like the municipal boards, town areas, etc., which often lay down standard tariff, but in practice the fare is generally on the higher side and settled mutually between the parties. The Zila Parishad is the registering authority for the vehicles such as bullock-carts, cycles, cycle-rickshaws, plying in the rural areas.

Mechanised Vehicular Traffic

Till 1947 motor vehicles, mainly mini-buses and trucks, were few in number in the district. With the construction and repair of more roads in the district in the last three decades, their number has considerably increased making the traffic easy and quick. Consumer goods, agricultural produce, building materials and various other commodities are generally transported by trucks or goods carriers, both heavy and light. The freight is usually settled by the parties concerned and varies from one to two rupees per km. An average size goods carrier carries a load of 74 quintals. These vehicles and their like are required to be registered with the regional transport officer of the State government on payment of a fixed annual fee, whereupon permits are issued for the vehicles to ply on the roads in the State. The following statement gives the kind and number of vehicles on road in 1977 :

Kind of vehicles	Number of vehicles
Trucks	266
Tractors	1,527
Cars/Jeeps	1,045
Motor cycles	1,425
Taxis	25
Others	819

The 'national permit scheme' has been launched by the Central Government to supplement rail transport and facilitate movement of goods from one part of the country to another. Both government and private buses are plied for the transport of passengers.

U. P. State Road Transport Corporation

The U. P. government roadways organisation which has been converted into the U. P. state road transport corporation with effect from June 1, 1972, started plying buses for passenger traffic in the district in 1956 and their number has gradually increased since then, bus journey being found to be more convenient by people who live in the interior areas, as buses run past villages and small towns which are off the railways routes. In the year 1976, the corporation buses plied on 17 routes in the district, their number being 56 in December, 1976.

Railways

The section of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways (later known as the East Indian Railway) between Hardoi and Shahjahanpur was opened to traffic on the 1st of March, 1873 and that from Shahjahanpur to Faridpur on the 8th of September following. The Powayan Light Railway connecting this section with the Oudh and Rohilkhand was opened from Shahjahanpur to Powayan on the 17th June, 1890. The section of the Lucknow-Sitapur-Bareilly State Railway between Gola and Pilibhit running through the north-eastern part of the district was completed on the 1st of April, 1891. The section from Powayan to Khutar was completed on the 19th of May, 1891 and that from Khutar to Mailani on the 22nd of December, 1895. Broad gauge line from Rosa to Sitapur was opened in 1910 and the metre gauge line from Shahjahanpur to Bisalpur in 1911. Broad gauge line from Shahjahanpur to Banadurganj and Carewganj was completed in 1916. The Powayan Light Railway was dismantled in July 1918. With the regrouping of the railways from May 14, 1952 the district is being served by the Northern and North-Eastern railways. Shahjahanpur lies on the main line of the Saharanpur-Mughalsarai section of the Northern Railway which enters the district from district Bareilly, and running south-eastward through tahsils Tilhar and Shahjahanpur goes to Hardoi. There are four stations on this line in the district. A branch line runs from Shahjahanpur to Sitapur. Shahjahanpur is also connected with Pilibhit by a branch

line of the North-Eastern Railway. There are five stations on this line within the limits of the district. A section of the North-Eastern Railway connecting Pilibhit with Lakhimpur Kheri runs through the northern part of tahsil Powayan and has two stations within this district.

The following statement gives some relevant details about the railway stations in the district:

Railway	Branch line	Stations	Distance from previous stations (km.)	Distance from district head-quarters (km.)
Northern	Lucknow—Saharanpur	Rosa	8 (from Kahilla)	9
		Shahjahanpur Junction.	8	
		Banthra	11	19
		Tilhar	10	29
	Shahjahanpur—Sitapur	Miranpur—Katra	9	38
		Rosa	8 (from Shahjahanpur Junction).	9
		Unchaulla	13	22
North-Eastern	Shahjahanpur—Pilibhit	Shahjahanpur	—	5
		Aroli	11	16
		Nigohi	9	25
		Zindpur	11	36

Travel Facilities

Before the introduction of locomotives and mechanised transport, journeys in the district were beset with dangers and difficulties, people generally travelling in groups. Robbers infested the roads and halting places were few and far between. Serais and inns provided food and shelter for travellers as well as a resting place for their animals.

Dharmasala :—The district has few places of any religious importance and, therefore, the number of dharmasalas is also small and they are generally used for marriage parties. Quicker means of transport making stay not always necessary, have also lessened the

importance of dharmsalas. A list of dharmsalas in the district is given in Statement II at the end of the chapter.

Dak Bungalows and Inspection Houses—There are a number of inspection houses and dak bungalows in the district which are maintained by the departments of the government for the use of the inspecting officers of the government. People in general, including tourists, may also be given accommodation at prescribed rates, if it is available. A list of inspection houses and dak-bungalows is given in Statement III at the end of the chapter.

POST-OFFICES

No regular postal service appears to have been attempted in the district till its cession to the British in 1801. In the early years of the British rule, a through postal service was started from Fatehpur to Bareilly and the official dak was carried to Shahjahanpur by way of Jalalabad, within the district the carriage of the letters was entrusted to the police, and there was no service for the use of the public at large. The official post was developed in 1838 by the institution of a staff of runners between the headquarters and the outlying police-stations. This scheme was extended in 1846 by allowing private letters also to be carried along with the official mail. At the same time the imperial post was extended and a direct service was instituted between Shahjahanpur and Bareilly, Budaun and Fatehpur. These were the only lines which provided correspondence between this and the neighbouring districts. This resulted in great delay and inconvenience. In 1863 the personal obligation of the zamindars was abolished, and in its place a cess was instituted; but it was not till the enactment of Act XIV of 1866 that the imperial postal system was established. The object was gradual acquisition of the local lines and the ultimate extinction of the system of district dak. The process of absorption was continued steadily and in 1906 the district dak was finally abolished. In 1908 there were 39 post-offices, including the head post-office, eight suboffices and 20 branch offices. With the passage of time the postal activities kept on expanding. After Independence the system has made rapid development, and by 1977 there were a head post-office, a telegraph office, 29 subpost-offices and 177 branch offices functioning in the district.

STATEMENT I

List of Roads

Reference Page No. 128

Road	Length in km.
Roads under Public Works Department—	
National Highway—	
Delhi—Baroilly—Lucknow State Highways	54
Pallia—Shahjahanpur—Hardoi—Lucknow	82
Pithoragarh—Pilibhit—Shahjahanpur—Bhind	80
Moradabad—Farrukhabad	37
Pilibhit—Basti	26
Other District Roads (metalled)—	
Katra—Jalalabad (metalled)	35
Powayan—Puranpur Ditto	19
Jalalabad—Dhaighat Ditto	21
Powayan—Nigohi Ditto	24
Jalalabad—Khandar Ditto	7
Powayan—Nahil Ditto	9
Tilhar—Jaitipur Ditto	17
Nigohi—Tilhar Ditto	17
Katra—Khudaganj (unmetalled)	16
Gola—Bilsand Ditto	32
Banda—Dookali—Nabhichi Ditto	16
Kant—Kuria Kalan—Chohanpur Ditto	22
Banda—Puranpur Ditto	17
Zilla Parishad Roads— Ditto	
Powayan—Banda (metalled)	20
Nibia-ghat Ditto	6
Shahjahanpur Cantt. (Bye-pass) Ditto	8
Tilhar—Azumabad Ditto	6
Mirzapur—Kalan Ditto	16
Powayan—Nigohi Ditto	24
Khutar—Banda Ditto	16
Tilhar—Nigohi .. Ditto	13
Paraor—Kalan .. Ditto	14
Banda—Dookali .. Ditto	12
Jalalabad—Khandhar Ditto	8
Powayan—Nahil Ditto	8
Khutar—Puranpur Ditto	13
Akbarabad—Jaitipur (upto Ramganga) (unmetalled)	16
Paraor—Dhai-ghat Ditto	24
Jograjpur—Kurriya Ditto	25
Tilhar—Khudaganj Ditto	24

STATEMENT II

List of Dharmsalas/Serais

Reference Page No. 132

Village/Town	Name	Management
Tahsil Jalalabad		
Jalalabad	Jalalabad dharmsala	Private 8.
Allahganj	Allahganj dharmsala	Ditto
Mirzapur	Mirzapur dharmsala	Ditto
Tahsil Tilhar		
Tilhar	Bazaria dharmsala	Ditto
Ditto	Biria dharmsala	Ditto
Ditto	Kunwarganj dharmsala	Ditto
Tahsil Powayan		
Powayan	Asharfilal-ka-dharmsala	Ditto
Tahsil Shahjahanpur		
Shahjahanpur	Kahatri Hitkarani Atithi Bhawan	Ditto
Ditto	Dharmsala Lala Kanhaiya Lal Kapoor	Ditto
Ditto	Dharmsala Lala Janaki Prasad	Ditto
Ditto	Bajinath Hardayal dharamsala	Ditto
Ditto	Lala Ramsharan Lal Vaishya dharmsala.	Ditto
Ditto	Khatari dharmsala	Ditto
Ditto	Rastogi dharmsala	Ditto
Ditto	Marwari Vidyalaya dharmsala	Ditto
Ditto	Baba Vishwanath Yatri Nivas	Ditto
Ditto	Baburam Batham Vaishya dharmsala	Ditto
Ditto	Baba Bankhandi Nath dharmsala	Ditto
Ditto	Serai Khirani Bagh	Ditto
Ditto	Serai Pakkapul	Ditto
Ditto	Serai Munnuganj	Ditto

STATEMENT III

List of Dak Bungalows, Inspection Houses, etc.

Reference Page No. 132

Villago/Town	Name	Managemnt
1	2	3
Tahsil Powayan		
Powayan	Dak bungalow	Tube-well department
Banda	Rest House	Ditto
Khutar	Ditto	Ditto
Mahasir	Inspection house	Canal department.
Imalia	Ditto	Ditto
Koro Kuinya	Ditto	Ditto
Jagapur	Ditto	Ditto
Singapur Khas	Ditto	Ditto
Bhabhi	Ditto	Ditto
Sapaha	Ditto	Ditto
Inta Rora	Ditto	Ditto
Tahsil Jalalabad		
Jalalabad ..	Dak bungalow	Public works department
Maloohpur	Ditto	Canal department
Tahsil Tilhar		
Katra	Inspection house	Canal department
Jatheora	Ditto	Ditto
Ohhirohhira	Ditto	Ditto
Inayatpur	Ditto	Ditto
Tahsil Shahjahanpur		
Chandapur-Barkarpur	Inspection house	Canal department
Dilawarpur	Ditto	Ditto
Anta Buzurg	Ditto	Ditto
Shahganj	Ditto	Ditto
Kapsenda	Ditto	Ditto
Bikrampur	Ditto	Ditto
Chandanka	Ditto	Ditto
Shahjahanpur	Ditto	Ditto
Ditto	Dak bungalow	Zila Parishad
Ditto	Ditto	Sainik Parishad
Ditto	Inspection house	Public works department

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

The decennial census of 1971 divided the economic activity of the people into main and subsidiary categories. Main category included cultivators, agricultural labourers and other workers in general, engaged in miscellaneous occupations. The subsidiary category included persons who were primarily treated as non-workers e.g., students and housewives. The latter were primarily engaged in household duties, but were side by side making marginal contributions to the economy of the house. Part-time workers were not included in the category of workers in 1971. They were basically treated as non-workers but were included in the subsidiary category.

The total population of the district in 1971 stood at 12,86,104. Of these 4,20,717 were workers (4,12,082 males and 8,635 females) and 8,65,287 non-workers (3,08,447 males and 5,61,940 females), the former constituting 32.71 and the latter 67.29 per cent of the total population. The census of 1971 registered an increase of 12,961 over the figures of workers in the census of 1961, when they numbered 4,07,756.

All persons who were economically active but were neither cultivators nor agricultural labourers were considered to be engaged in miscellaneous occupations. Their number was 91,758 and 72,114, in 1961 and 1971, respectively.

The main occupations which fall in the category of "miscellaneous occupations" are communications, transport, storage, trade and commerce, construction, industries, mining, quarrying, live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting, development of orchards and allied activities. The statement of non-agricultural labourers, in different occupations at the time of 1971 census is given below :

Occupations	1971
Mining, quarrying	40
Live-stock, forestry, fishing, hunting, development of orchards and allied activities	1,575
Household industries and manufacturing	20,667
Construction	1,548
Trade and Commerce	13,686
Transport, storage and communications	7,463
Services	27,136
Total	72,114

That fewer persons were engaged in other vocations in 1971 was probably the result of the new concept of categorisation adopted in the census of 1971. Unlike the 1961 census, only such persons were enumerated as workers in 1971 who worked regularly and for longer hours. Casual work which was treated as an occupation in 1961 census was not included in the definition of workers in 1971 census. Most of the workers of such category worked in the rural areas as in 1971, 43,705 persons or 60.60 per cent of the miscellaneous workers worked in the rural areas, while 28,409 or 39.40 per cent worked in the urban areas of the district.

PUBLIC SERVICES

The number of persons employed in various public services in 1977 is given in the following Statement :

Category of public employment	Number of reporting establishments	Number of employees		
		Total	Males	Females
Administrative departments and offices of the Central Government	5	9,414	9,295	119
Administrative departments and offices of the State Government	91	5,932	5,594	338
Administrative departments and offices of, quasi-government organisations, local bodies, etc.	50	6,959	6,090	869
Total	146	22,305	20,979	1,324

The fixed income group in the district generally comprises of persons serving in government offices, local bodies or subordinate offices. They can avail of various types of benefits including allowances and loans, on liberalised terms, which are made available to them by the Government. According to revised rules, enforced by the State Government, it is permissible for a government servant whose pay-scale does not exceed Rs 1,000 to surrender 30 days earned leave once in a financial year, in exchange for the average salary for this period. Other benefits include advances for the purchase of a conveyance and construction, purchase or repair of house. They are also given house accommodation, if available, at moderate rent.

Employees are allowed to form associations or unions under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 for the protection and promotion of their service interests. Employees of the State Government in the district are members of their respective service associations affiliated to their State-level organisations. Likewise, employees of the local bodies are members of the local authorities employees association and the employees of Uttar Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation are members of the Employees Road Transport Corporation Joint Council.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS

Education

Teachers, principals and other administrative officers are included in this category. With the opening of a large number of educational institutions after Independence in 1947, the number of employees under this category has increased considerably. In 1971, 3,550 teachers (3,074 males and 476 females) were employed in the district.

In 1964, the triple-benefit scheme was extended to educational institutions in receipt of aid from the State but managed by local bodies or private persons, to enable the members of teaching staff to avail of the advantages of contributory provident fund, compulsory life insurance and retirement pension (which includes family pension). Besides wards of teachers are also entitled to free tuition upto the intermediate standard. Needy and disabled teachers receive finan-

cial aid from the National Foundation for Teachers' Welfare Fund and those suffering from tuberculosis can avail of free facilities of treatment at the Ghotia Sanatorium at Bhowali.

There are two associations of the teachers in the district, namely, the Madhyamik Shikshak Sangh and Prathamik Shikshak Sangh which are affiliated to their State-level apex bodies. Their main function is to look after the welfare of their members, foster a sense of unity among them and put up their difficulties, if any, before the authorities.

The following Statement gives the number of persons employed under various categories in this profession in 1978 :

Educational institutions	Total no. of teachers
University/Degree colleges	72
Secondary schools	810
Middle and Primary (senior and junior Basic) schools	3,532
Nursery and Kindergarten schools	77
Others	163
Total	4,654

Medicine

Medical and public health services in the district are managed by the State. The number of private medical practitioners is very small.

In 1971, there were in all 800 persons practising under different systems of medicine in the district. The number included 785 male and 15 female doctors. In addition, 439 persons were employed as nurses and other medical and health technicians in 1971.

The total number of doctors posted in various government hospitals, dispensaries, etc. was 66 in 1977-78. Their break-up was as follows:

Type of establishment	No. of doctors
Government hospitals	11
Primary health centres	29
State dispensaries	10
State homoeopathic dispensaries	3
State Ayurvedic dispensaries	7
State Unani dispensaries	3
Dispensaries maintained by Zila Parishads	3
Total	66

In addition 267 persons were employed as nurses, vaccinators, midwives, etc. by the Government in 1978. Their classification was as follows :

Classification	Total number	Number of females
Nurses	8	8
Midwives	143	143
Compounders	49	1
Vaccinators	41	—
Health visitors	26	25
Total	267	178

A branch of the Indian Medical Association (established in 1939) with a membership of 40, in 1978, is also functioning in the district with the object of promotion and advancement of medical and public health services in the district.

Law

The district had 330 legal practitioners and advisers in 1978. Government appoints district counsels from among the lawyers for appearing in civil, criminal and revenue cases on behalf of the State.

A few panel lawyers have also been appointed, to share the work load of these functionaries.

With the number of new entrants increasing every year, the legal profession has become crowded and competitive.

Majority of lawyers, however, still prefer to practise at the district headquarters where important courts are located. The lawyers of the district have two bar associations, known as the collectorate bar association and the civil court bar association. Each has its own building in the collectorate and the civil court compounds respectively. The main aims of these bar associations are inculcating a feeling of brotherhood among the members, maintaining harmonious relations between the bar and the bench, defending civil liberties and helping people in proper use and enjoyment of their liberties and lastly rendering free legal assistance to deserving persons under "legal aid to the poor" scheme.

In 1978, the two associations had a total membership of 330, of which 130 were members of the collectorate bar association and 200 of the civil bar association.

Arts

The total number of sculptors, painters, photographers, creative artists, poets, authors, journalists and related workers in the district was 85 in 1971.

Household Industry and Manufacturing

The number of persons engaged in this sector in the district was 20,667 in 1971.

Construction

According to 1971 census, 1,548 persons were engaged in constructional activities.

Trade and Commerce

There were 13,685 persons engaged in trade and commerce in 1971.

Transport, Storage and Communications

The number of persons employed in this sector was 7,463 in 1971.

Domestic and Personal Services

Domestic servants, cooks, etc., render these services. They generally live with their masters and render various types of services. In the rural areas they cook their meals separately, but in the towns

they often board with their employers. There being no security of service, it is not uncommon to find them often changing places in search of better prospects. In recent years with the spurt in developmental activities new job opportunities have been created and thus these domestic hands are often able to seek and procure jobs both in the government and quasi-government institutions. In 1971, there were 165 house-keepers, matrons and stewards (domestic and institutional) and 240 cooks, waiters, bartenders and related workers (domestic and institutional).

Barbers and hairdressers

In 1971, the total number of barbers, hairdressers, beauticians and related workers was 1,480. In the countryside the barbers in the past were also engaged to perform certain customary duties among their clients, particularly the Hindus on occasions such as birth, *mundan* (first tonsure of child), marriage and death, etc. side by side their regular professional work. Barbers are not, however, being employed in such extra professional activities as frequently as in the past particularly in the urban areas.

Washermen

In the towns many people still get their clothes laundered by *dhobis* (washermen) but high charges and uncertainty regarding timely delivery of clothes by them have led the less affluent wash their clothes themselves. In 1971 there were 709 persons working as launderers, dry cleaners and pressers in the district.

The growing use of synthetic fabrics which can be easily washed at home and which also do not require pressing very often, has adversely affected this trade. Therefore, quite a number of them have set up dry cleaning plants and provide pressing service in their own shops in the towns.

Tailors

In 1971, the number of tailors, dress makers, sewers and other related workers was 6,355. Of these 6,310 were male and 45 females.

The sewing machine is commonly used by tailors even in the rural areas, where stitching charges are usually paid in kind. Tailoring in the towns is considered to be an art and requires specialised training. A town based tailor, in order to run his trade successfully, has to be an expert in his line with ability, expertise and skill to fabricate new designs and styles in male and female dresses.

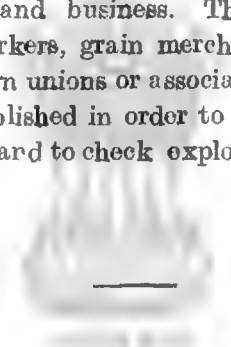
Other Occupations

In 1971, the number of persons engaged in various other professions in the district was as follows:

3,154 food and beverage processors; 1,557 spinners, weavers, knitters, dyers and related workers, 1,463 carpenters, cabinet and related wood workers; 911 blacksmiths, tool makers and machine tool operators; 425 shoemakers, and leather goods makers; 191 transport conductors and guards; 155 transport and communication supervisors; 140 plumbers, welders, sheet metal and structural metal preparers and erectors and 66 varnish painters.

Labour Organisations

Of late the workers-both skilled and unskilled have become particularly conscious of their rights and privileges, which has led them to organise trade unions and associations related to their particular trade, profession and business. The confectioners, private transport owners and workers, grain merchants, etc. of the district have also formed their own unions or associations. These associations have generally been established in order to protect their interests, to avoid undue competition and to check exploitation of their members.



CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

LIVELIHOOD PATTERN

Workers and Non-workers

The percentage of workers and non-workers out of the total population (12,86,104) in the district was 32.70 and 67.30 respectively in 1971, when the corresponding figures for the State were 30.9 and 69.1 per cent respectively. Cultivators and agricultural labourers formed the bulk of the working population of the district and the two categories put together accounted for 82.87 per cent of the total number of workers in 1971. Other services claimed 6.44 per cent, household industries and manufacturing undertakings 4.91 per cent, while trade and commerce absorbed 3.25 per cent. The number of persons employed in transport, storage, communications, construction, mining, quarrying, live-stock development, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantation and orchard development accounted for 2.53 per cent of the workers in the district.

The extent of female participation was 1.5 per cent of the total population as against 6.7 per cent in the State. The non-working female dependents were mostly engaged in household work and did not seek work for a livelihood. Of the total number of women workers in the district which formed 2.05 per cent of the total working force (male and female), 65.40 per cent was engaged in agricultural and 34.60 per cent in non-agricultural activities.

The following Statement gives the percentage distribution of workers in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors of economy in the district in 1961 and 1971 :

Year	Total population	Total number of workers	Percentage of workers to total population			
			Agricultural	Non-Agricultural	Total workers	
					District	State
1961	11,30,256	4,07,756	27.95	72.05	36.1	39.1
1971	12,86,104	4,20,717	27.18	72.82	32.7	30.9

The percentage of working population of the district showed a decrease in the decade 1961-71 in spite of the rise in population because of the change in the definition of the word 'worker' in the census of 1971. According to categorisation of the census of 1961 a person working even for an hour a day was enumerated as a worker. Accordingly a woman who attended to her household duties was enumerated as a worker if she went to the field or attended to the cattle even for a short time in the day. According to the census of 1971, a person who was engaged permanently in household duties such as cooking food for the household was categorised as a non-worker, disregarding his part-time contribution to any economic activity.

In the 1971 census workers were classified into nine major categories, the basis of the classification being those activities which were similar in respect of processing, raw-materials and products. The details of the nine categories of workers in 1971 are as follows :

Category	Total	Males	Females	Percentage to total workers	Percentage to total population
1	2	3	4	5	6
Cultivators	2,91,039	2,87,716	3,323	69.17	22.70
Agricultural labourers.	57,564	55,239	2,325	13.70	4.47
Live-stock, develop- ment of fo- restry, fishing, hunting, planta- tion and orchard development and allied activities	1,575	1,533	42
Mining and quarry- ing	40	40	-
Manufacturing, pro- cessing, servic- ing and repairs :					
(a) Household in- dustry	7,161	6,797	364	1.70	0.50
(b) Non-household industry	13,506	13,202	304	3.21	1.06
Construction	1,548	1,538	10	0.36	0.12

Contd.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Trade and Commerce	13,685	13,492	193	3.25	1.06
Transport, storage and communications	7,463	7,405	58	1.77	0.58
Other services	27,136	25,120	2,016	6.44	2.10
Total workers	4,20,717	4,12,082	8,635	100.00	32.70
Non-workers	8,65,387	3,03,447	5,61,940	—	67.30
Total Population	12,86,104	7,15,529	5,70,575	—	100.00

All the non-workers have been grouped together in one single class, though they were classified at the 1971 census in the following categories :

- (a) Full-time students
- (b) Those attending household duties
- (c) Dependents and infants
- (d) Retired persons and rentiers
- (e) Persons of independent means
- (f) Beggars and vagrants
- (g) Inmates of penal, mental and charitable institutions
- (h) Others

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES AND WAGES

Prices

In ancient and medieval periods currency and coinage were in short circulation and prices were not determined in terms of money but in terms of certain commodities. The barter system was in vogue and it appears from the available records that prices were low except in times of war and other calamities. The prices of wheat and other eatables were extremely low in the reign of Akbar as indicated below :

Commodity	Quantity available per rupee					
Wheat	12 Maunds.
Barley	16 Do.
Rice	16 Do.
Moong	18 Do.
Meat	17 Do.
Milk	44 Seers.

1 maund=37.3 kg.

1 seer=0.83 kg.

The earliest available records of prices show that before 1857 the average prices were 30 seers of wheat, 46 seers of rice, 33 seers of *bajra* and 38 seers of gram per rupee. In the following decade of 1861—70 the average price per rupee of wheat was 23.87 seers, rice 18 seers, barley 36.42 seers, jowar 31.65 seers, *bajra* 33.64 seers and gram 26.25 seers. The next ten years (1870—80) were marred by the great famine of 1877-78. In this period (1870—80) the average price per rupee of wheat was 19.85 seers, rice 15.8 seers, barley 28.82 seers, jowar 24.86 seers, *bajra* 24.49 seers, and gram 23.45 seers. The price situation remained unpredictable in the decade (1880—90). In the first five years owing to restoration of normal conditions after the famine, the prices declined. But after 1885 there was a general rise in prices in the district, as also in other parts of the country, mainly caused as a result of development of means of communications, increase in export trade, and decline in the value of silver.

The rise in prices became a permanent feature in successive years. In the decade 1880—90 the average prices per rupee being, wheat 19.48 seers, rice 15.86 seers, barley 28.68 seers, jowar 26.13 seers, *bajra* 24.46 seers and gram 23.35 seers. In the next decade (1890—1900) the prices registered a steep upward trend, the prevailing average prices per rupee being wheat 14.47 seers, rice 10.76 seers, barley 21.33 seers, jowar 18.85 seers, *bajra* 17.76 seers and gram 18.13 seers. The first five years of the present century (1901—1905) witnessed some fall in prices, but in the following years prices again resumed their rising trend. In the period of fifty years ending with 1907, the prices registered a rise of nearly 53 per cent over those prevailing in 1857. After 1907 the prices kept on fluctuating, with occasional fall, till the out-break of the First World War (1914—18).

During the war the increase in the prices was a world-wide phenomenon caused mainly by diversion of resources for the requirements of the war. The rise in prices continued for the major part of twenties. This was followed by a period of economic depression roughly commencing from 1930, continuing till 1939 and causing general crashing of prices. The following Statement gives the price index in the district in a number of years from 1916 to 1944 :

Year	Price index (Base 100 in 1911)
1916	122
1928	178
1934	96
1939	134
1944	349

With the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, the prices started rising and conditions worsened due to speculation and profiteering by traders. Hoarding of essential commodities further aggravated the situation. In 1940, the district authorities were given necessary powers to cope with the situation and prompt steps were taken which brought down the price level to an appreciable extent. But it was a short-lived phenomenon and the prices soon started rising again. Though the price control measures which included fixation of prices, launching of prosecutions to check profiteering and licensing of food-grain traders were vigorously enforced, the upward trend in prices continued.

It was found that effective control of prices was not possible without a corresponding check on supplies. Hence in 1943, partial rationing was introduced in the district, in respect of certain commodities. It was converted into total rationing in the later part of 1944 which continued till 1948. The district was derationed on experimental basis in the beginning of 1948, but failure to achieve the desired objectives led the district authorities to reimpose full rationing at the close of 1948 which continued till 1953. The retail prices during this period (1948-53) remained stable. The prices of food-grains were fixed by the government and they were made available at fixed rates, through fair-price shops. The statutory and full rationing was abolished from the year 1953. Restrictions on movement of food-grains were withdrawn and their procurement was also suspended. Open and free markets were also restored. The fair-price shops were, however, continued to exist side by side the open and free market, mainly to offset the fluctuations in the prices of food-grains and other essential commodities. The average wholesale prices of some of the food-grains in the urban areas of the district from 1951 to 1954 were as follows :

Food-grains	Price in Rs per 37.2 kg.			
	1951	1952	1953	1954
Wheat	20.00	19.39	17.78	12.55
Gram	12.50	14.55	14.22	7.62
Rice	23.00	29.09	26.67	17.30

The normal play of forces of demand and supply started adjusting the prices. But it had a few disadvantages, because neither the cultivator was sure of getting a fixed minimum price for his produce, nor the trader of his commission. This uncertainty led to a decline in prices in 1954 with a further fall in the following year. The fall in prices was about 32.70 per cent for wheat, 43.58 per cent for rice and 51.05 per cent for gram in 1955 as compared to those prevailing in 1953. The government took measures to support prices of agricultural commodities and the results proved conducive to production.

The average wholesale prices of some of the food-grains in the district from 1955 to 1958 are given in the following statement :

Food-grains	Price in Rs per 37.2 kg.			
	1955	1956	1957	1958
Wheat	11.85	15.24	16.41	20.00
Gram	6.96	11.23	11.85	13.91
Rice	16.41	18.82	24.32	26.14

In 1958, the decimal system of currency and coinage and in 1960, the metric system of weights and measures were introduced in the district. On account of the system being new and the people not used to it, the traders made marginal gains in the exchange process particularly in the rural areas. The following statement gives the average wholesale prices of some of the food-grains in the district in 1959 and 1960 :

Food-grains	Price in Rs per 37.2 kg.	
	1959	1960
Wheat	16.84	17.78
Gram	12.80	15.24
Rice	16.75	23.70

In the beginning of the sixties the prices registered a downward trend, but in subsequent years they again registered an upward trend

especially during the years 1963 to 1965. The price hike in this period was caused to a large extent as after-effect of the Chinese Aggression, 1962, the Indo-Pak Conflict, 1965, and the resulting inflation caused by the diversion of resources to the defence needs of the country. But the prices came down to some extent in 1968 due to import of food-grains and its ensured supply to public through fair-price shops.

A comparative study of prices of certain commodities in the urban areas in this period indicates that in comparison to 1960, the prices of wheat, rice, barley, gram and *arhar* had by 1970 reached a higher level. The price of common salt also went up further during this decade. The following statement gives the retail prices of certain commodities in the urban areas in August 1960, 1965 and 1970 :

Commodities	Price in Rs per 37.2 kg.		
	1960	1965	1970
Cereals :			
Wheat	18.60	35.34	28.64
Gram	29.01	29.76	51.38
Rice	19.71	37.57	45.38
Barley	12.27	22.69	20.08
Pulses :			
<i>Arhar</i>	39.82	57.66	85.93
Common Salt	5.68	7.44	7.44

The rise in prices after 1970, however, became alarming particularly during 1973-74 when they broke all previous records. The following statement gives the average wholesale prices of wheat, gram and rice in the period from 1971 to 1973 :

Food-grains	Price in Rs per 37.2 kg.		
	1971	1972	1973
Wheat	27.90	34.22	40.92
Gram	29.38	52.49	63.61
Rice	39.06	47.61	52.82

The stress of the Indo-Pak Conflict 1971, the resultant inflation and increase in the international prices of crude oil and other petroleum

products were some of the important factors responsible for spiralling of prices. Natural calamities such as droughts, floods, etc., in the district as well as in other parts of the country also contributed to rise in prices. However, the prices of various commodities showed some downward trend in 1975-76.

The following statement gives the average retail prices of various agricultural commodities between 1974 and 1977 :

Commodities	Price in Rs per kg.			
	1974	1975	1976	1977
Wheat	1.66	1.20	1.05	1.23
Gram	2.10	1.65	1.15	1.65
Rice	2.00	1.60	1.48	1.62
Barley	1.39	0.79	0.72	1.00
Gur (Jaggery)	1.57	2.02	1.96	1.52
Sugar	4.49	4.15	4.26	3.65
Ghee	18.95	20.58	21.25	22.58
Mustard oil	9.95	6.42	6.86	10.66
Salt	0.25	0.20	0.21	0.23
Chillies	10.00	14.58	10.50	11.25
Dhania	5.75	5.79	7.88	8.63

Wages

In the medieval period and even for a long time under the British rule, wages particularly in the rural areas in the district were paid in kind. Coarse grains such as jowar, *bajra* and gram or their flour often with some jaggery were distributed to the labourers in the rural areas as payment for work. Another mode of payment was giving of some land to the labourer in lieu of work and allowing him to keep a part of the agricultural produce thereon as wages.

Those rendering customary professional services such as washerman, barber, black-smith, carpenter, utensil cleaner and even the village *vaid* (physician) and priest were also paid in kind, usually twice in a year, at the harvesting time of *kharif* and *rabi*.

The first wage census was held in the State in 1906. The results

of that survey and those conducted subsequently in respect of the district are given below :

Year	Wages (per day)	
	Skilled worker (in Rs)	Unskilled worker (in Rs)
1906	0.24	0.12
1911	0.28	0.15
1916	0.39	0.16
1928	0.54	0.23
1934	0.54	0.21
1939	0.62	0.23
1944	1.08	0.57

Wages registered a steep rise in the wake of the First World War (1914—18) and this trend continued till the end of twenties, when on account of the world-wide economic depression, wages as well as prices declined. However, with the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939 wages showed a rising trend, but it did not commensurate with the prices. And the picture has not changed much since then. At the beginning of the war the daily wages were 0.62 paise for the skilled and 0.23 paise for the unskilled worker. In 1944, the daily wages of the skilled worker was Rs 1.08 and that of unskilled worker 0.57 paise. This increasing trend in the wages has ever since then continued. In the later half of the sixties, the increase in the wages was, however, marginal.

The following statement shows the wages of the skilled and unskilled worker in the district from 1966 to 1970 :

Year	Wages (per day)	
	Skilled worker (like carpenters and masons (in Rs)	Unskilled worker (in Rs)
1966	4.50	2.50
1967	5.23	3.22
1968	7.00	3.68
1969	7.00	4.00
1970	7.00	4.00

The increase has been more marked in the wages of both the skilled and unskilled category of workers after 1970, as a result of

appreciable rise in prices of commodities. The following statement gives the daily wages in the urban areas of the district from 1971 to 1976 :

Year	Wages (per day)	
	Skilled workers (in Rs)	Unskilled workers (in Rs)
1971	7.00	4.00
1972	7.92	3.88
1973	8.00	3.33
1974	12.00	5.62
1975	13.83	6.15
1976	14.00	7.00

In the last two decades or so, there has been a spurt in the developmental activities both in the industrial and agricultural sectors which has resulted in more job opportunities for the people in the district. There is a large number of wage earners in the villages of the district working as carpenters, blacksmiths, weeders, reapers, irrigation workers, and workers who work on the transplanting of paddy. These workers work for about eight hours a day and their wages are paid both in cash and kind (grains). In addition there are barbers and washermen who also now prefer cash payments of wages in lieu of their services. The following statement indicates the daily wages of certain categories of rural workers in the district in 1977 :

Type of worker	Wages per day (in Rs)	Working hours	Lunch hours
Weeder	5.00	8	1
Tiller (for ploughing)	5.00	8	1
Irrigation worker	5.00	8	1
Transplantation worker	5.00	8	1
Carpenter	12.00	8	1

The following statement indicates the wages of skilled and unskilled workers in the urban areas of the district in 1977 :

Category of worker	Unit of quotation	Amount (in Rs)
Gardner	Per month (whole time)	100.00
	Per month (part-time)	45.00
Chowkidar	Per month	50.00
Wood-cutter	Per 37.2 kg. of wood cut	0.40
Herdsmen	Per cow per month	4.00
	Per buffalo per month	5.00
Porter	Per 37.2 kg. of load carried for 1.6 km.	1.50
Casual labourer	Per day	7.00
Domestic servant	Per month with food	30.00
	Per month without food	100.0
Carpenter	Per day	12.50
Black-smith	Per day	8.50
Tailor	Per mans' shirt (full sleeves)	4.00
	Per woman's shirt (short sleeves)	2.50
Barber	Per shave	0.35
	Per hair cut	1.25
Scavenger	Per month per latrine	4.00
Motor driver	Per month	300.00
Truck driver	Per month	400.00

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

Employment Trends

The establishments in the public sector as compared to private sector are the biggest employers in the district, though the number of private establishments in the district is larger than the public ones. Of the 313 establishments in the district in 1971, nearly 57 per cent were in private and 43 per cent in public sector, the former providing employment only to 33 per cent and the latter to 67 per cent of the total number of persons employed in the district.

An idea may be had regarding the number of establishments under the public and private sectors in the district and the number of persons employed therein during the period from 1973 to 1977 from the following statement :

Year	Number of establishments			Number of employees		
	Private sector	Public Sector	Total	Private sector	Public sector	Total
1973	130	112	242	4,500	21,485	25,985
1974	127	107	234	4,166	21,510	25,676
1975	138	117	255	5,120	21,719	26,839
1976	184	119	303	7,585	21,938	29,523
1977	177	136	313	7,656	22,305	29,961

The number of persons employed in various trades and services in the district in 1976 and 1977 is shown in the following statement:

Nature of activity	Number of reporting establishments		Number of employees					
			1976			1977		
	1975	1977	Private sector	Public sector	Total	Private sector	Public sector	Total
Agriculture, live-stock, develop-ment, hunting and fishing.	4	4	..	395	395	..	371	371
Manufacturing ..	119	114	5644	9281	14925	5834	9254	15088
Construction ..	3	2	..	636	636	..	661	661
Electricity, gas water and sani-tary services.	12	10	165	980	1145	43	987	1030
Trade and com-merce.	14	14	138	313	169	121	77	198
Transport, storage and communica-tions.	4	4	26	492	518	27	493	520
Services ..	147	165	1612	10123	11735	1631	10462	12093
Total ..	303	313	7585	21938	29523	7656	22305	29961

Employment of Women

The extent of employment of women both in the private and public sectors in 1977 is indicated by the following statement:

Number of reporting establishments	313
Number of women employed in private sector	302
Number of women employed in public sector	1,326
Total number of women employees	1,628
Percentage of women employees of total number of employees in private sector	3.5
Percentage of women employees of total number of employees in public sector	5.9

The largest number of women (34.6 per cent) were employed in the medical and public health services followed by education. The proportion of women workers in different spheres of activity in the quarter ending with December 1977, was as follows:

Nature of activity	Percentage of women employees
Medical and public health	34.60
Education	22.70
Other services	5.60
Manufacturing	0.84
Transport	0.40
Trade and commerce	0.34
Construction	0.09

Unemployment Trends

The educational qualifications of candidates who were registered with the employment exchange of the district in the year ending December, 1977 were as under:

Educational qualifications	Number of persons registered with employment exchange	
	Men	Women
Below junior high school (including illiterate)	14,115	276
Junior high school	1,672	24
Matriculate	2,374	154
Intermediate	3,128	248
Graduate	951	142
Post-graduate	110	50
Total	22,350	894

The number of vacancies notified for the quarter ending December, 1977 for employment is given in the following statement :

Employer	Number of vacancies notified
Central Government	85
State Government	42
Quasi-government (Central)	1
Quasi-government (State)	3
Local bodies	21
Private	3
Total	155

According to the register of the local employment exchange, the compounders, stenographers, nurses, auditors, boiler attendants, and cinema operators were in short supply in the district.

Employment Exchange

An employment exchange was established at Shahjahanpur in 1949 with a view to provide job assistance to the unemployed persons and to meet the requirements of employers by making suitable candidates available to them.

The employment market information scheme is enforced in the district, under which an intensive study of the public and private sector establishments in the district is made. It covers information regarding the number of persons employed, number of vacancies created and types of jobs for which the supply of qualified candidates is inadequate. The data thus collected enables the employment exchange to prepare estimate in advance regarding the manpower potential and needs of the district.

The following statement gives the number of persons registered with the employment exchange and the number of persons who were provided jobs from 1973 to 1977 :

Year	Vacancies notified by employers	Number of persons registered for employment	Number on 'live register'	Persons provided with employment
1973	793	9,544	13,195	72
1974	413	10,273	11,698	369
1975	428	17,898	20,021	387
1976	718	17,476	21,003	712
1977	936	14,187	33,244	837

A vocational guidance unit has also been set up in the employment exchange which provides guidance to employment seekers and offers specialised assistance in psychological and aptitude testing by assessing the qualities and interests of the candidates. Books, pamphlets and other useful literature regarding job opportunities are also made available here. The following statement shows the work done by the unit during the year 1976 :

Service provided	
No. of persons who received information/guidance	1,070
No. of group discussions conducted	266
No. of participants in the group discussions	3,041
No. of applicants who used career information room of the unit	2,042

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

After the assumption of office by the Congress government in the State in 1937, one of the major steps taken by the new government was formulation of a concrete programme of rural planning and development. A rural development association was formed at the district level, which functioned as an advisory body. It had a non-official chairman and a subdivisional magistrate served as its secretary. The programmes included rural hygiene, construction of roads and establishments of libraries and night schools for adults. Soon after the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, the Congress government went out of office and the programme could not continue. It was only after 1947 that fresh and vigorous steps were initiated by the government in this direction. The rural development department was merged with the co-operative department and the rural development association was replaced by the district development association, with the district co-operative officer as the secretary and a non-official as chairman. In 1951, the district planning committee with the district magistrate as its chairman and the district planning officer as its secretary, replaced the district development association. It had a number of subcommittees for the preparation and execution of the first Five-year Plan schemes and projects. The district was divided into smaller units called development blocks, through which the Plan programmes of different departments of the government were to be implemented in an integrated way.

The first Five-year Plan was launched in April 1951, with the primary objective of raising the standard of living of the people. It was largely a collection of departmental programmes with particular emphasis on the development of agriculture, irrigation and transport, through the national extension service scheme and peoples participation. Voluntary labour (*shramdan*) was organised for construction of roads, culverts, village orchards, etc. Improved methods of agriculture and use of new scientific implements and manures were introduced and the means of irrigation were further augmented.

The Khutar development Block (in tahsil Powayan) was the first to be established in the district on January 1, 1956 during the first Five-year Plan period. The second and third Five-year Plan periods saw the opening of thirteen more blocks, three in Shahjahanpur, three in Jalalabad, four in Tilhar and three in Powayan tahsils.

Development blocks have been charged with the responsibility of executing and implementing the schemes under the Five-year Plans. The staff of each development block consists of a block development officer, a number of assistant development officers and village level workers under the overall control of the district development officer at the district level. The scope of the second Five-year Plan (1956—61) was enlarged to include industrialisation and greater emphasis was laid on the development of heavy industries. The aim was all-round development with the help of basic heavy industries, enhancement of national income and increasing of employment opportunities. In the field of agriculture, programmes relating to the Japanese method of paddy cultivation, U. P. method of wheat cultivation and training in the use of new improved agricultural implements, chemical fertilisers and green manures were taken up.

In 1958, an Antarim Zila Parishad was formed amalgamating the erstwhile district planning committee and the district board. It was renamed as Zila Parishad in 1962-63. For the co-ordinated execution of different Plan schemes the resources of agriculture, co-operatives, animal husbandary, panchayat *raj* and some other departments like medical and health, plant protection, etc., were pooled and put under the control of the district planning officer, now called the district development officer.

In the third Five-year Plan (1961—66) a three-tier structure of rural self-governing bodies was set-up in the district with effect from

1963 to ensure people's participation in the successful implementation of the planning and development programmes. Accordingly village panchayats at the village level, the Kshettra Samitis at the development block level and the Zila Parishad at the district level were set-up. Some of the relevant particulars of the 14 development blocks in the district are as under :

Tahsil	Name of block	Date of inauguration	Number of <i>gaon sabhas</i>	Number of <i>nyaya panchayats</i>	Population in 1971	Area (in square km.)
Jalalabad	Jalalabad	2-10-54	128	13	1,07,491	394
Do.	Mirzapur	1-4-62	68	8	62,774*	23
Do.	Kalan	2-10-56	81	9	1,37,164	311
Powayan	Powayan	1-7-57	98	8	1,32,616	284
Do.	Sidhauli	2-10-62	117	10	55,285*	361
Do.	Khutar	1-1-56	94	10	75,442	424
Do.	Banda	N.A.	105	9	74,497	477
Shahjahanpur	Kant	2-10-56	111	9	1,23,504	333
Do.	Dodraul (Shahjahanpur)	4-1-60	104	8	72,326*	347
Do.	Bhawal Khora (Misripur)	1-4-66	116	9	1,39,292	316
Tilhar	Katra Katra (Khudaganj)	N.A.	93	9	80,868*	260
Do.	Tilhar	1-4-58	105	8	1,52,211	224
Do.	Nigohi	2-10-61	99	8	68,276	330
Do.	Jaitipur	1-4-61	91	8	74,589	252

N. B. (1)* These blocks were abolished in 1966 but were revived in 1972, so the population of these blocks is based on 1961 Census

(2) Names of block headquarters, not situated in the block, have been indicated in the brackets

There are a number of *gaon sabhas* and *nyaya panchayats* in each development block, their total number in the district being 1,411 and 125 respectively in 1978.

The third Five-year Plan (1961—66) envisaged taking up of intensive development programmes of agriculture in order to make the district economy, self-reliant and self-generating. Special programmes relating to sowing of new and improved varieties of seeds, intensive methods of cultivation, popularising use of chemical fertilizers and scientific agricultural implements, etc., were, therefore, launched. The Chinese Aggression in 1962, resulted in a setback to these programmes.

During the period 1966 to 1968 annual plans were taken up with the objective to achieve an annual growth rate of 8 to 10 per cent in the industrial sector, and 6.9 per cent in the agricultural sector and achieve self-sufficiency in food-grains, to create more employment avenues, to redress the imbalances arising out of the high rate of population growth and to reduce the fertility rate to 25 per thousand.

The fourth Five-year Plan (1969—74) sought to distribute land to landless labourers and to cut down the size of large agricultural holdings. In spite of the strain on the country's resources caused by the Indo-Pak Conflict of 1971, there were notable achievement in various sectors of economy.

As a result of cultivation of high—yielding varieties of seeds and use of fertilisers, adoption of scientific methods of cultivation and an intensive programme of minor irrigation works, provision of financial assistance by the Uttar Pradesh State Co-operative Land Development Bank Ltd., and availability of electricity for energising the tube-wells, the production of food-grains has increased to a large extent.

Standard of Livings

The standard of living of the people generally depends on two main factors, the income of the family and its expenditure pattern. The per capita income of the farmer has, no doubt, increased with prosperity in agriculture, particularly in the last two decades, yet the expenditure pattern shows large investments on agricultural implements and other inputs. Only the big farmers can afford to spend a part of their income on recreation, better clothes, household equipments, transport, higher education, etc., People in trade and business enjoy a comparatively high standard of living. With various incentives by the government, the living conditions of the weaker sections of society like the Schedule Castes and Tribes and Other Backward Classes have been improving in recent years.

Till the fifties of the present century, the roads in the district were in bad shape and means of transport were slow, old and traditional. It was difficult to reach places in the interior, during rainy seasons. However, with better and quicker means of transport, travelling has become easier and more convenient.

With the availability of more power and better means of communications, the pace of industrialisation is also picking up in the district



CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

Early in the 18th century a part of the south of the district was included in the territory of Muhammad Khan, Nawab of Farrukhabad, but the central portions were acquired by Ali Muhammad, the Rohilla chief. On the east the Katehriyas retained their independence in the tract between Avadh and Rohilkhand. In 1774 after the defeat of the Rohillas by the allied forces of the Avadh and the British, the two provinces were united.

At the time of cession in 1801, the whole of Rohilkhand was divided into the two districts of Moradabad and Bareilly, the latter including Shahjahanpur. In 1813-14 a new district was created with headquarters at Shahjahanpur, but several additions and alterations were made before 1865 when the district took its present shape. At present there are four tahsils, namely, Shahjahanpur, Jalalabad, Tilhar and Powayan.

The district, at present, forms part of the Bareilly Division under a commissioner with headquarters at Bareilly.

Commissioner

The commissioner functions as a connecting link between the government and the districts included in his Division. He exercises full administrative control over these districts. He controls, guides and advises the district and regional level officers, solves inter-departmental problems and assesses the work of the officers of different departments. He also acts as an appellate authority, hears appeals and revisions under the U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1950, and other enactments like the Arms Act, 1959, etc. He is the chairman of the regional transport authority and has extensive powers of supervision over the Zila Parishad, municipal boards and other local bodies. He also looks after the progress, execution and implementation of various development projects and Plan schemes in the Division.

District Officer

The district is in the charge of a district officer who holds the dual position of the district magistrate as well as the district collector. He holds a key post and is the pivot of the administrative machinery of the district. As district magistrate he heads the criminal administration, while as collector he is incharge of revenue administration of the district. Maintenance of law and order, enforcement of various laws, rules, regulations and miscellaneous government orders, appraisal of public opinion and tackling of disturbing situations are some of the important duties assigned to him as district magistrate, and it is in the performance of these that he comes in close touch with the police. Under the Arms Act, 1959, he is the licensing authority for the possession of arms and ammunition of certain categories.

In the capacity of collector he is responsible for the collection of land revenue and other government dues recoverable as arrears of land revenue of the district. Preparation and maintenance of land records and statistics, survey, settlement, consolidation of holdings, resumption and acquisition of land, rehabilitation of displaced persons, distribution of relief during natural calamities such as drought and floods are some other subjects dealt with by him as the principal revenue officer of the district. As ex-officio deputy director of consolidation he also supervises the work of consolidation and hears revisions under the U. P. Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1953 (as amended). He is also responsible for the due accounting of all money received and paid by the treasury and for submission of periodical returns to government.

Besides his many sided administrative activities, the district officer also looks into the equitable distribution of food-grains and other essential commodities through the public distribution system where he is assisted by the district supply officer. He is also ex-officio district election officer and president of the district soldiers', sailors' and airmens' board.

In the planning and development set-up of the district he acts as the prime supervisor, and in this task he is assisted by the district development officer who coordinates the planning and developmental activities of different departments in the district with the help and co-operation of the respective heads of the department.

With the ushering in of the concept of welfare state, the district officer's role has assumed new dimensions on account of his being called upon to make the welfare of the people his prime concern.

The collector runs the revenue and general administration of the district. He is assisted in his work by one additional collector who also enjoys magisterial powers and is also called additional district magistrate. Then there are four sub divisional officers, each of whom holds charge of a subdivision. They also exercise magisterial powers and are also called sub divisional magistrates.

For the convenience of revenue administration each of the four tahsils—Shahjahanpur, Jalalabad, Tilhar and Powayan are in the immediate charge of a resident tahsildar, who is assisted in the task by a number of *naib* tahsildars. He also acts as magistrate in addition to being an assistant collector. He also sits as a court for hearing and deciding certain categories of revenue cases. His main duties are collection of land revenue and other government dues, maintenance of land records, hearing and disposal of revenue cases and looking after the welfare of the people in his tahsil. He is also called upon to organise and supervise relief works occasioned by natural calamities. The tahsildar is also the sub treasury officer in charge of the tahsil sub treasury.

The district superintendent of police heads the police organisation of the district and is responsible for maintenance of peace, law and order and detection and investigation of crimes. He is in charge of the district police force and is responsible for its efficiency, discipline and proper performance of duties. In the district he is assisted by one additional superintendent of police and four deputy superintendents of police and a number of sub-inspectors and station officers, etc.

Another important pillar of the government set up is the judiciary. The district is under the jurisdiction of the High Court of Judicature, Allahabad. The district and sessions judge is the highest judicial authority in the district for all civil and criminal matters, his court being the principal civil court of original and appellate jurisdiction. As sessions judge he hears sessions cases committed by the magistrates and has power to award capital punishment. Till the early part of 1976 he was also ex-officio district registrar. The work

has now been transferred to additional district magistrate (revenue and finance) who also works as district registrar.

OTHER DISTRICT-LEVEL OFFICERS OF STATE GOVERNMENT

The following are the main State government functionaries enjoying the status of district-level officers having headquarters at Shahjahanpur. Each of them is the local head of his respective department in the district.

The district development officer (formerly called the district planning officer), who pools the following officers under his control :

- District agriculture officer
- Assistant registrar, co-operative societies
- District panchayat Raj officer.
- District organizer, Prantiya Vikas Dal
- District statistics officer
- District horticulture officer
- Plant protection officer
- Soil conservation officer
- District Harijan and social welfare officer
- District live-stock officer
- District savings officer
- Assistant engineer, minor irrigation

Other District-level Officers

- Chief medical officer
- District employment officer
- District information officer
- District industries officer
- District inspector of schools
- Sales tax officer
- Superintendent of jail
- Basic Shiksha Adhikari
- Treasury officer
- Excise officer
- District supply officer
- Deputy regional marketing officer
- Executive engineer, public works department
- Executive engineer, sharda canal
- Executive engineer, tube-wells

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT OFFICERS

Ministry of Finance

Income-tax—For the purpose of assessment, levy and collection of income-tax, wealth tax and gift tax, district is divided into two wards each under the charge of an income-tax officer. In the assesment work the income-tax officers are assisted by income-tax inspectors.

Central Excise—The collection of central excise in the district is looked after by a superintendent, who has his headquarters at Shahjahanpur. There are a number of inspectors to help him in his work. The chief excisable items are tobacco, *khandsari*, paper and paper boards, safety matches, cotton yarn, refrigerators and air-conditioning appliances, power-driven pumps, cosmetics and goldwares.

National Savings Organisation—The main object of this organisation is to inculcate among the people, particularly those belonging to small income group, a habit of thrift and induce them to invest their savings, howsoever small, in one or the other schemes launched by the government and thereby help in fighting inflation and augmenting resources of the State for developmental work. The regional office of the organisation covering the whole of State is headed by a regional director who is assisted by an advisory board to co-ordinate official and non-official activities in this sphere. In the district the scheme is administered by a district savings officer and an assistant district savings officer under the administrative control of the assistant regional director, national savings, having headquarters at Shahjahanpur. Advisory committees, consisting of officials and non-officials, have been formed at the district, tahsil and development block levels to advise on matters connected with the implementation of various schemes for boosting up savings.

Ministry of Transport and Communications

Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department—The postal division of Shahjahanpur (with headquarters at Shahjahanpur) is under the charge of a senior suprintendent of post-offices assisted by a number of inspectors. The district is served by a net-work of post-offices, sub post-offices and branch post-offices and a head post-office at Shahjahanpur. A number of post-offices have telegraph and telephone facilities also particularly in the urban areas.

Ministry of Railways

Railways—The transport needs of the district are served by the Northern Railway (broad gauge), under the Moradabad division of the Northern Railway and the North-Eastern Railway (metro gauge), under the Izatnagar division of N. E. Railway. The town lies on the main line of the Saharanpur-Mughalsarai section of the Northern Railway. A branch line (broad gauge) runs from Shahjahanpur to Sitapur. It is connected with Pilibhit by a branch line of North-Eastern Railway.

There are six railway stations in the district connected by the Northern Railway and four railway stations on the North-Eastern Railway. The administration of the railway stations is carried out by the station masters, who are assisted by a number of assistant station masters and other staff.



CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Fiscal History

Details of revenue administration of the district in the ancient and mediaeval times are not available, but very likely the land revenue system which existed here was almost the same as that which prevailed in other parts of the country. In ancient times the local raja was the owner of all land and his subjects paid him in cash or kind a portion of their produce as tribute in return for protection of life and property against external and internal enemies and probably this varied at different periods from one-sixth (as mentioned in the *Smritis*—ancient law books) to one-third. There was thus direct contract between the local raja and the farmer for the payment of land revenue as there were no intermediaries of any sort. Panini also makes reference to payment of certain cesses to meet emergent expenditure on special occasions. With the coming of the Muslims, this part of the country also came under their authority but till the emergence of Sher Shah (1540—1545) the revenue administration did not acquire its due share of attention. During his reign it became the paramount concern of the state. He reorganised the revenue system, substituting the method of collection of revenue on the basis of estimates of the yield of the land by a system based on actual measurement.¹ The land was measured by rope or chain, the standard *gaz* (yard) being fixed at thirty-two *anguls* (an *angul* being about three-fourths of an inch), sixty *gaz* making a *jarib* and a square of 60 *jaribs* making a *bigha*.

After the death of Sher Shah, and the resulting confusion which prevailed for well over a decade, the whole revenue system devised by him got utterly disrupted. With the help of his renowned finance minister Todar Mal, Akbar attempted the first regular Settlement. He divided the empire into a number of subahs, each subah into a number of sirkars and each sirkar into a number of *mahals*. A

1- Tripathi, R. P. : *Rise and fall of the Mughal Empire*, (Allahabad, 1960), p. 134

code was promulgated for the administration of the empire and with necessary modifications Sher Shah's revenue system was adopted without affecting the customary rights of the cultivators.

The most important reform, however, for which Akbar deserves special credit, was the introduction of the *dah-salah* or the 'ten years' schedule of rates. It is wrong to assume that the *dah-salah* system meant anything like the decennial Settlement or Settlement after every ten years. On the contrary under this system the revenue assessed was based on the average of the collections made in the previous ten years. The system was intended to continue indefinitely and indeed it did remain in force at least till the end of Akbar's reign. The basis of assessment was the usual one-third of the produce in kind, although payment in cash was encouraged. The revenue was fixed in *dams* (a *dam* being one-fortieth of a rupee). The *elahi gaz* (33 inches or 83.8 cm.) and *tanab* (a measuring rod) were used as standards of measurement. The unit of measurement was *bigha*. Land was classified according to the continuity of cultivation. A piece of land cultivated continuously was styled as *polaj*; if left fallow for periods up to four years, it was turned *chachar*, and if it remained uncultivated for longer periods it was classed as *banjar* such land which remained uncultivated for short periods was known as *parti*. The *polaj*, *chachar* and the *parti* lands were further subdivided into good, bad and middling.

In Akbar's time the entire district fell in the *sirkar* of Budaun with the exception of a portion of the Jalalabad tahsil, which seems to have been included in the Shamsabad *mahal* of the Kannaui *sirkar*. The *mahal* of Kant had then 55,584 *bighas* of cultivation, assessed at 24,39,369 *dams*, exclusive of 48,444 assigned as *suyurghal* (cesses) for military, religious and other purposes. This *mahal* comprised all the Shahjahanpur tahsil, as well as pargana Tilhar and portions of Jalalabad and Khera Bajhera. The *mahal* of Gola, which embraced pargana Nigohi, the Powayan tahsil and parts of the present Kheri and Pilibhit districts, had then 24,540 *bighas* of cultivation and paid a revenue of 11,36,931 *dams* in addition to 4,257 as *suyurghal*. Part of Khera Bajhera belonged to Saneha, a pargana in Bareilly, but the rest, as well as Katra and Jalalpur, were included in the immense *mahal* of Bareilly. Consequently it is quite impossible to make even a rough comparison between the state of the district as it then was and as it is now. However, from the

statistics of cultivated area and the revenue demand given above, it is clear beyond doubt that the incidence of revenue was very heavy in Akbar's time probably owing to the high purchasing value of the rupee and a far-developed state of agriculture in those days.

After the death of Aurangzeb, the revenue administration of the district, along with the entire northern India was a picture of confusion, except for a short while when it remained under the Rohillas. In 1802 whole of Rohilkhand including this district was ceded to the East India Company by the Nawab Vizir of Avadh.

It appears, that in the early years the British chose to maintain the status quo in the revenue system. The early Settlements were merely of summary nature. The demand in the first year of British rule was practically the same as that enforced by the Avadh officials. It was replaced by a triennial Settlement, (1802-03 to 1804-05), wherein each village was farmed out to the highest bidder at the auction while the tahsildars, who collected the revenue from the farmers, received instead of salary a percentage of revenue collections. It is true that some attempt was made to ascertain the assets, by determining the rent rates and farming estimates of produce for various classes of soil, but there was no check on the fraudulence of subordinates and no means of safeguarding the interests of landholders, so that the latter were compelled to bid more than the real value if they wished to retain their ancestral possessions. At the same time the leases granted at the first Settlement clearly held out hopes of a permanent Settlement and the creation of legal proprietary rights, so that when the second triennial Settlement, (1805-06 to 1807-08), was made in a manner similar to the preceding assessment and the demand was raised still higher, general dissatisfaction prevailed. The third and fourth Settlements were made for four and five years respectively and legal recognition was given to the status of the zamindars who were now to be styled proprietors. This title was confirmed in the minutes of the Governor-general, dated 21st September, 1815. The document rejected definitely the *ryotwari* policy in favour of a Settlement with the village headman, who was declared to be the *muqaddam* or zamindar in all cases where the old *malik* or his representative was not forthcoming. The rights of the zamindars were further sanctified under the Regulation VII of 1822. The defects of the earlier Settlements were illustrated by their results. Balances were constantly accruing and accumulating, so that the collection of the revenue became an almost impossible task.

In Mihrabad pargana the revenue rose from Rs 81,410 at the first Settlement to Rs 1,39,354 at the fourth Settlement, while in the Tilhar tahsil, including the Marauri pargana, the corresponding figures were Rs 2,05,452 and Rs 3,27,207. The fifth Settlement was merely an extension of the fourth, and was for five years, from 1817-18 to 1821-22. It inherited all the defects of the preceding ones and worked no better.

No attempt appears to have been made in this district to employ the cumbrous machinery of Regulation VII of 1822, and consequently the sixth, seventh and eighth Settlements, each made for five years, were mere extensions instead of revisions. Although it is difficult to ascertain precisely the effect of alterations in the area of various parganas, it is clear that in many cases heavy enhancements had occurred at the last two Settlements, and that the zamindars were reduced to a state of serious embarrassment. The share taken by the state was supposed to be 80 per cent of the rental, so that the effect of an excessive assessment would necessarily reduce the profits of the zamindars to a minimum. Matters had indeed come to a head, but the disaster was to some extent averted by the timely introduction of the Regulation IX of 1833. It provided for a survey, an essential which had hitherto been omitted, the preparation of a complete record of rights, which was equally necessary, and an assessment for a long term at only 66 per cent of the accepted assets. To begin with the village papers were compiled, the soils were demarcated enabling the assessing officer to frame circles; the villages of each pargana being divided into classes according to their fertility and capabilities for irrigation. In each class a fair revenue rate was fixed as the standard to which the rates of all the villages in one class should approximate. After a careful study of the recorded rent the revenue was fixed which ranged from one rupee per acre in the *bhur* and *bankati* to Rs 3 in the richest parts of the sugar-cane growing tracts, the highest being found in Baragaon and some villages of Powayan. After having thus fixed the revenue, the demand was distributed over each pargana on the basis of the estimates of the *kanungos* and the representations of the zamindars. The result of the Settlement was a total revenue of Rs 9,83,566 for the entire district, involving a considerable reduction in every pargana except Khutar; which was sadly mismanaged by the local raja. The reductions were most noticeable in the case of Mihrabad, Khera Bajhera, Kant and Tilhar and it would appear that a relatively

low opinion was formed of the value of the *bhur* and *bankati* tracts. The first regular Settlement was completed between 1837—40 and was sanctioned for thirty years. Reductions proved necessary in several instances, effecting nineteen villages in the Powayan tahsil, 62 *mahals* in the Tilhar, 10 villages in the Shahjahanpur and one in the Jalalabad, the resultant loss of revenue being Rs 7,184. Sales of farms for arrears too were fairly frequent, especially in the Tilhar tahsil, and these were almost invariably due to the severity of the assessment. However, this Settlement had the credit of removing the hopeless confusion and ambiguities of title, and the feelings of insecurity which had hitherto prevailed. The second regular Settlement began in 1867-68 as usual, with a survey, which was carried out by the plane-table system. The work of measurement was closely followed by inspection and assessment in each pargana and consequently was spread over a considerable period. The new assessment came into force in July 1870 for tahsil Shahjahanpur, a year later for Jalalabad and the Tilhar and Katra parganas, in 1872 for Baragron and the rest of the Tilhar tahsils, and in 1873 for the Powayan and Khutar. The methods adopted differed in many ways from that of the preceding Settlement e.g., the determination of assets on the basis of the actual rents and the reduction of the government share to 50 per cent. Each pargana was divided into topographical circles, and in each circle standard rates were framed by taking the recorded rental prevailing for each class of soil, after eliminating favoured rents paid by the landholders or their proteges and all that appeared to be unduly low. By the application of these rates the potential assets of each estate were ascertained, and on this basis the assessment was made, after a close personal inspection of the village and its peculiar conditions. As a result of this Settlement the total demand for the district amounted to Rs 11,84, 425, which represented nearly 54.9 per cent of the net assets.

In every pargana the demand was largely increased and this was especially noticeable in the case of Khutar, where it amounted to 78 per cent. For this reason progressive enhancement was sanctioned for that pargana, while the depressed condition of the tract, resulting from a severe epidemic of cattle disease and a succession of adverse seasons, were also taken into account. Nevertheless the expectations of the settlement officer were not realised, for in 1882 the cultivated area in 128 villages of the district had declined by 40 per cent, and it was clear that the assessment had been made under abnormally

favourable conditions. The famine of 1877 brought matters to a climax so that in 1881 the revenue in these villages was reduced by Rs 5,675. Elsewhere too the Settlement failed to give complete satisfaction. Complaints of over assessment became frequent. Every year difficulty was experienced in realising the demand and numerous properties were sold by auction for the recovery of arrears.

It was, therefore, considered that a summary revision of the assessments, based upon the village records would meet the needs of the case. However, the original scheme was abandoned, and it was ordered that a complete attestation of the records should be undertaken. The district had already been surveyed cadastrally in 1895—97, for the third regular Settlement and the attestation establishment was deputed from February 1898, to take up the work, which continued till the end of 1901, by which time the record-of-rights had also been completed. Consequently the attestation was of little assistance in the work of assessment, and it was so far behind the survey that the records prepared by the survey department were out of date, and all the preliminary work had to be done again. As regards the actual assessment, the district on this occasion was more fortunate than at the preceding Settlement for the assessable area, instead of being abnormally large, was much smaller than the average by reason of the general depression resulting from adverse climatic conditions. As a result of this Settlement the net assets amounted to Rs 24,14,245 and the revenue was fixed at Rs 11,69,260 and included that of the alluvial *mahals*, but did not include the nominal revenue of Rs 4,624 of revenue—free land, calculated for the purpose of determining cesses. Where villages were in a deteriorated or distressed condition owing to previous over-assessment, famine or other cases, a light demand was imposed for the first five years of the new Settlement. In others, where no such anticipation of immediate recovery was justifiable, short-term Settlements were made for ten years as in the Powayan tahsil, where the short-time revenue amounted to Rs 16,482. Elsewhere the proportion of the assets taken as revenue ranged from 45 to 50 per cent according to the presence or absence of special circumstance demanding lenient treatment, such as poverty or the hardship likely to be caused by a sudden enhancement to a revenue assessed at full rates. Where the old demand exceeded half the assets, a reduction was made irrespective of the question whether the landlord had loyally paid the unfair demand in the past or had been a habitual defaulter. The third Settlement was sanctioned for thirty years, and came into force in July 1900.

After the expiry of this Settlement, no fresh Settlement was made in the district and its term was extended till the zamindari was abolished in the district on July 1, 1952, by the enforcement of the U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1951. After the abolition of zamindari the tiller of the soil became liable for the payment of the land revenue direct to the government. The U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act fixed May 1 and December 1 for such payments. The collection of land revenue is done by the collection *amins* who work under the direct supervision of the tahsildars.

Relation between Landlord and Tenant

The ancient tenancy system, being highly conducive to the well being of the cultivators posed little problem between them and the landlord. However, with the establishment of the Muslim rule in the country numerous problems regarding landholding, assessment, settlement of revenue and rights of cultivating classes, cropped up. Fiscal disorders recurred at regular intervals in medieval times except during the reigns of Alauddin Khalji, Sher Shah and Akbar who concentrated mainly on laying down sound and equitable revenue policy.

During the Mughal rule, the zamindars acted like agents of the imperial government for the purpose of collection of land revenue. Their office was neither hereditary nor proprietary. Later the British rulers usurped both these rights. To begin with the British rulers instead of introducing innovations in the revenue system preferred to maintain the status quo. However, to ensure speedy and effective realisation of land revenue they enhanced the powers and position of the zamindars. No tenancy rights or tenancy laws existed till much after the freedom struggle of 1857. A feeble attempt was made by the Act X of 1859, which for the first time gave legal recognition to the conception of a right of occupancy on the land. It also provided that a cultivator would acquire occupancy rights over land held by him for 12 years and limitations were also imposed on the power of the landholders to enhance the rent. Amendments in the Act were made in 1873 and in 1881.

For obvious reasons the occupancy system proved to be unpopular with the landholders and they adopted variety of ingenious devices to evade the operation of the legal provisions. An occupancy tenant could be ejected if he failed to pay arrears of rent after they had

been decreed by the courts. The landholders began to drag the cultivators to ruinous litigation by keeping wrong accounts of payments of rent. In some cases, the cultivators were compelled to change their land after a certain period to prevent them from acquiring occupancy rights in the land.

The Land Revenue Act of 1901, was designed to remedy the above evils. But it also left the door open for arbitrary ejectments, rack-renting and wasteful litigation by the landholders resulting in large-scale agrarian discontent around the twenties of this century. To render necessary economic assistance to the cultivators in times of needs, a number of *taqavi* Acts were passed. These Acts afforded help in kind and cash to the cultivators to tide over the difficult periods occasioned by natural calamities, as well as to increase agricultural production.

As a next step towards securing the rights of the cultivators, the Agra Tenancy Act, 1926, was passed. It sought to safeguard the interests of both the tenants as well as the landholders. A major break through was achieved after the formation of the popular Congress ministry in the State in 1937. The U. P. Tenancy Act, 1939, brought about radical changes, strengthening the position of the tenants and fettering the powers of the landholders in various ways. Statutory tenants and their heirs were given hereditary rights, tenants other than non-occupancy tenants were given unrestricted powers to plant trees on their holdings and *begar* (forced labour) was prohibited. The powers of the landholders for ejecting the tenants and enhancing their rents were also very much restricted.

After the Independence, the government was anxious to introduce far reaching land reforms in the State which could not possibly be undertaken without eliminating the intermediaries and simplifying the system of land tenure. With this end in view the U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1951, was passed. It was enforced with effect from 1st July, 1952 except in some areas to which it was extended at later dates.

LAND REFORMS

Abolition of Zamindari

Despite many legislative attempts by the government to emancipate the tiller of the soil from the thralldom of the zamindar and his

oppressive actions, the situation could hardly be changed much till about the fag end of the British rule. The abolition of the oppressive system of zamindari had become the watchword and the prime concern with the popular ministry in the State in 1937. On the 8th of August, 1948, the U. P. Legislative Assembly resolved to abolish zamindari once for all. In pursuance of this resolution the U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Bill was introduced in the State Assembly on July 7, 1949 and became law on 26th January, 1951 and all the estates were vested in the State with effect from July 1, 1952.

The Act, in effect, brought about direct relationship between the actual cultivator and the State, the institution of zamindar (intermediary) having been abolished. The rights of the zamindars in land of common utility such as *abadi* sites, pathways, wastelands, pastures, forests, fisheries, public wells, tanks and water channels were acquired and vested in the State. The Act, besides securing the ownership rights of the cultivators, gave them much needed incentive to improve their holdings and augment agricultural production. The zamindars were given compensation in lieu of the loss incurred by them, as a result of the enforcement of this Act. Besides guaranteeing compensation, the Act also provides for payment of rehabilitation grant to those whose land revenue did not exceed Rs 10,000. Till 1978, a total amount of Rs 1,08,84,693 was assessed as rehabilitation grant, out of which a sum of Rs 1,08,84,628 was paid in cash to the intermediaries. The total amount of compensation paid to the intermediaries of the district amounted to Rs 1,09,37,525 as against the total assessed sum of Rs 1,09,55,424.

Instead of various diverse and complicated varieties of tenures, the Act provided only four viz., *bhumidhar*, *sirdar*, *asami* and *adivasi*, the last one being only a transitional form of land tenure which was to disappear after five years. It was done by the amending Act XX of 1954, and all the *adivasis* thus became *sirdars*. There were only three classes of tenure holders, namely, *bhumidhars*, *sirdars* and *asamis*. *Bhumidhari* right could be acquired by a *sirdar* on payment of a specified multiple of the annual rent. Those who did not pay could not get transferable rights over their holdings. They could only till and inherit. Subletting, except in cases of disability as defined in the Act, was prohibited. In 1977 another major change was effected in the U. P. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act which converted all the *sirdars* into *bhumidhars* without the

right to transfer. The *bhumidhars* are thus divided into two classes, viz., *bhumidhars* with transferable rights and *bhumidhars* with non-transferable rights.

With the abolition of zamindari all public lands were vested in the State. The same were, however, subsequently transferred to the respective *gaon sabhas* for management through a committee known as the Bhumi Prabandhak Samiti (i.e. land management committee). The committee lets out land on lease for agricultural, horticultural and other allied purposes.

Collection of Revenue—After the abolition of the zamindari, the land revenue is collected by the government directly through the agency of the collection *amins* whose work is supervised by *naib-tahsildars*, *tahsildars* and subdivisional officers. The ultimate responsibility for the collection of land revenue in the district rests with the collector. The demands of the main dues in the district in 1976-77, recovered as arrears of land revenue were as follows :

Main dues	VALUE	Total demand (in Rs)
Land revenue	42,25,243	50,75,243
Irrigation charges	1,37,07,213	1,37,07,213
Vrihat Jot Kar	10,107	10,107
Taqavi Act XII	8,10,923	8,10,923
Taqavi Act XIX	4,077	4,077
Land development charges	23,18,460	23,18,460

Bhoodan—Acharya Vinoba Bhave, a disciple of Mahatma Gandhi, in order to bring about a just and equitable distribution of land among the people living in the countryside, started a movement in 1951 wherein appeal was made to the cultivators to spare and donate cultivators some of their land for distribution to the poor and landless. The movement generally known as the Bhoodan Yojna created an awakening among the people regarding the necessity of such a measure and by 1978, an area of about 5 hectares of land in the district had been so donated. Of this about 3.7 hectares has been allotted to the landless.

Consolidation of Holdings

The consolidation of holdings under the U. P. Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1953, began in the district in 1959 in tahsil Shahjahanpur. The main object of the scheme is consolidation of scattered holdings and prevention of its fragmentation, which results in uneconomic holdings and ultimate loss of agricultural production. The tahsilwise area of holdings thus consolidated up to March, 1978 was as follows :

Name of tahsil	Year of enforcement	Total number of villages	Area consolidated (in hectares)
Shahjahanpur	1959	473	75,244
Tilhar	1963	548	86,409
Jalalabad	1968	287	49,643
Powayan	1972	768	1,16,710

Urban Land Reforms—The rights of zamindars in agricultural land in urban areas were also acquired under the U. P. Urban Areas Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms Act, 1956 (U. P. Act IX of 1957). Till March 1978 a sum of Rs 2,18,175 was assessed as compensation, out of which Rs 2,13,275 had been paid.

Imposition of Ceiling on Land Holdings

To effect a more equitable distribution of land, the U. P. Imposition of Ceilings on Land Holdings Act, 1960 (Act I of 1961), was enforced in the district in January, 1961. The Act was amended in June, 1973, and the maximum size of holding of a tenant in respect of irrigated land was fixed at 7.30 hectares and in case of unirrigated land at 10.95 hectares. Till July, 1978, 4, 339 hectares of land involving 1,119 landholders had been declared surplus and was allotted to 5,532 landless persons. An amount of Rs 10,43,018 was assessed as compensation payable to the affected landholders, the total amount paid being Rs. 8,50,360 by that date.

These reforms have not only led to the extinction of the absentee landlordism and reduction in the size of big holdings, but have also given to many landless agricultural labour, land and to the common cultivator a sense of belonging to his land.

ADMINISTRATION OF TAXES OTHER THAN LAND REVENUE

In this district, as elsewhere in the State, sources of revenue include several Central as well as State taxes.

Central Taxes

Of all Central taxes, the central excise and the income-tax are the most important ones.

Central Excise—For the purpose of collection of central excise, the district is headed by a superintendent, who works under the overall control of the assistant collector, central, excise, having his headquarters at Sitapur. The main taxable commodities are tobacco, *khandsari*, *bidis*, etc.

The following table gives the year wise excise revenue realised in the district from 1972-73 to 1976-77:

Year	Amount (in Rs.)
1972-73	50,70,000
1973-74	54,90,000
1974-75	93,31,000
1975-76	1,29,98,000
1976-77	93,58,000

Income-tax—An income-tax officer, with headquarters at Shahjahanpur, supervises the assessment and collection of income-tax in the district. He also deals with the collection of the gift and wealth taxes. The following statement gives the details of collections under separate heads in the last three years ending 1976-77 :

Year	Income-tax		Wealth tax		Gift tax	
	Number of assesses	Amount (in Rs.)	Number of assesses	Amount (in Rs.)	Number of assesses	Amount (in Rs.)
1974-75	2,466	32,82,000	98	78,000	24	32,000
1975-76	2,458	55,36,000	195	1,18,000	23	42,000
1976-77	2,987	63,24,000	230	2,35,000	40	54,000

State Taxes

Excise—Excise has been one of the most important sources of State Revenue in the district since the beginning of the British rule. It is chiefly realised from the sale of liquor and bhang. The administration of excise duty is under the charge of an excise superintendent who works under the overall supervision of the district magistrate.

Liquor—In 1978, the district had 41 liquor shops. The following statement gives the quantity of liquor consumed yearwise from 1973-74 to 1977-78 :

Year	Consumption (in B. L.)
1973-74	2,35,946
1974-75	1,98,121
1975-76	1,59,391
1976-77	2,48,004
1977-78	3,41,475

Hemp Drugs—The hemp drugs viz., bhang and ganja constituted important items of excise revenue in the past. The use of charas and ganja is prohibited in the district. The consumption of bhang in the five years ending 1977-78 is given in the following statement :

Year	Consumption (in kg.)
1973-74	2,851
1974-75	3,240
1975-76	3,184
1976-77	2,870
1977-78	3,360

Sales Tax

The sales tax is levied under the U. P. Sales Tax Act, 1957. It is now the most important source of revenue to the State. For the purposes of assessment and collection of the sales tax, the district is in the charge of a sales tax officer. The amounts of sales tax realised on important commodities like food-grains, cement, sugar,

bricks, etc., during the five years ending 1977-78 are given in the statement below :

Year	Amount (in Rs.)
1973-74	38,54,123
1974-75	80,45,281
1975-76	1,01,02,173
1976-77	1,09,02,649
1977-78	1,13,90,103

Stamp and Registration

Stamp duty was introduced by the British to discourage large number of law suits and to fetch revenue from the civil litigants. Affixation of stamp is, therefore, made compulsory in legal proceedings and in courts of law.

The Indian Stamp Act, 1899 classifies stamps as judicial and non-judicial, the former being used to pay court fees, and the latter have to be affixed on bills of exchange, documents of gifts, sale and lease, etc. The income from stamps includes fines and penalties imposed under the Indian Stamp Act. The receipts from judicial and non-judicial stamps during five years, 1972-73 to 1976-77, are shown in the following statement :

Year	Receipts (in Rs) from stamps	
	Judicial	Non-judicial
1972-73	3,01,284	14,47,588
1973-74	3,92,431	21,26,047
1974-75	5,31,648	38,59,964
1975-76	8,02,933	21,55,864
1976-77	5,33,365	27,09,477

Registration—The additional district magistrate (Revenue and Finance) Shahjahanpur works as an *ex officio* registrar of the district. In discharge of his duties he is assisted by four subregistrars, posted at each of the tahsil headquarters.

The following statement gives the details of the documents registered and income derived during the three years ending 1976-77

Year	Number of documents registered	Income (in Rs)
1974-75	14,171	13,84,687
1975-76	10,264	47,38,511
1976-77	7,396	41,36,062

Taxes on Motor Vehicles

All the motor vehicles are liable to taxation under the U. P. Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1935 (as amended in 1958) and Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939. The district is included in the Barcilly region. The collections under the passenger, goods and road taxes in the region for the year 1976-77 were Rs 29,76,527, Rs 43,60,798 and Rs 84,41,489 respectively.

Entertainment and Betting Tax

This tax is imposed on all paid public entertainments and bettings such as cinema shows, dance shows, etc. The following statement shows the amounts collected under this tax in the district between 1973-74 and 1977-78 :

Year	Amount (in Rs)
1973-74	9,06,439
1974-75	13,02,866
1975-76	13,17,317
1976-77	11,91,399
1977-78	14,19,265

The entertainment tax officer Shahjahanpur is assisted by an entertainment tax inspector, who checks evasion and ensures timely deposit of entertainment tax in the district.

CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

LAW AND ORDER

During the time of the Mauryas, the Guptas and Harshvardhana, the responsibility of control and prevention of crime was collectively placed on the inhabitants and they were successful in checking the crime and in maintaining law and order, *Rakshaks* (guards) were appointed in each village to guard the public property and in case of failure they were held personally responsible. The system was well organised in the reign of Chandragupta Maurya. With the growth of feudal institutions, the responsibility for maintaining law order and peace devolved on the landlords through the institution of *rakshaks* (guards). During the Muslim rule, Kotwals were appointed in the towns and were paid a monthly allowance to meet the expenses on their staff of chowkidars and peons.

In the sixteenth century, the duty of the *faujdars* (garrison commanders) was to maintain peace, keep the roads free from robbers and to enforce imperial regulations. *Thanedars* (in charge of police-stations) were appointed to assist the *faujdars*.

Due to aggressions of the Rohillas, Marathas, and the marching of the Avadh troops in these areas, this district was under a sort of permanent disorder. Taking advantage of this state of affairs, a number of tribes namely Nats, Haburas, Kanjars, Sansias, Bhadaks, Gujars, Ahirs, Pasis, Bhils and Kateharia Rajputs inhabiting the tract indulged in criminal and anti-social activities. Female infanticide, though not widespread, was undoubtedly common in the district.

The British acquired this portion of Rohilkhand in 1801 and appointed a separate police force to maintain law and order. Special patrols were deployed for roads and river traffic and a small force was appointed for detection of crimes and was maintained at the police-stations. Prior to the British take over of this area, the police duties were performed by the revenue officials with the magistrate

and collector acting as the chief of the district police force. The tahsildars used to supervise police work in the tahsils with a number of *thanas* (police-station) placed under their control. The vesting of administrative, judicial and police functions in the collector made him heavily overworked. The tahsildars paid more attention to revenue work and neglected their police duties. The village watchmen, who were in the service of the land-holders used to perform watch and ward duties, but they failed to exercise proper vigil, giving rise to chaos and confusion in the countryside. Conditions reached their worst during and after the freedom struggle of 1857.

A plethora of problems relating to law and order and general administration faced the British rulers in the wake of the freedom struggle and it became imperative to organise the police force on sound and regular basis. The government also realised that the responsibility of police administration should devolve upon the governments in the provinces. A committee was appointed to sort out the whole matter and its recommendations led to the promulgation of the police Act which with amendments affected from time to time still forms the bedrock (Act V of 1861), of the whole gamut of police administration all over the country. A uniform police system was introduced under this Act. A superintendent of police is appointed in the district to act as the head of the district police force. The district is divided into a number of police circles, each circle being further subdivided into *thanas* (Police-station), being under the charge of an inspector or a sub-inspector.

Incidence of Crime

Till the beginning of the present century, the district had earned a notoriety for criminal activities. The district administration had to devote considerable resources and energy for taking measures for controlling crime and lawlessness and maintaining order. The administration had also to deal with recalcitrant Zamindars and armed gangs of highway robbers. The latter carried out holdups and raids frequently and their task was made easy by the shelter afforded by the dense forests existing in those days. Stern measures were adopted by the district authorities to curb their activities and special units of police force and cavalry were often deployed for

this purpose. Other crimes such as thuggee, murder, dacoity, house-breaking, cattle lifting, etc., were also very rampant.

A number of tribes like Pasis, Dhanuks, Bhadaks, Bahelias and Haburas who mostly indulged in criminal activities, like burglary, theft, house-breaking etc., also operated in the district. Unsettled political conditions prevailing in those days also encouraged the organised armed gangs of Rajputs and Ahirs to carry out raids which created a scare in the countryside. In the closing years of the last century, special measures were initiated by the British rulers to put down such criminal activities and brigandry. As a result crimes were considerably checked and the law and order situation tended to improve. Several police out-posts were also set up to curb crimes in the worst affected parts of the district. The second, third and the fourth decades of the present century mark the periods of heavy strain on the administration because of the two World Wars (1914—18 and 1939—45) and the perpetual constraints necessitated by the national upsurge for the attainment of freedom resulting in anti-government movements in every part of the country. Even after the achievement of Independence, for some time the dacoity menace continued to remain a source of constant trouble for the government. By taking elaborate measures, the police has been successful in liquidating several notorious gangs of dacoits. Regular patrolling arrangements by the police have been made in the district to curb crime in general and dacoity in particular.

The following statement gives the figures of crimes reported, convictions and acquittals in the district in different years:

Crime				Year		
				1975	1976	1977
1				2	3	4
Murder						
Reported		137	140	113
Convicted		41	38	8
Acquitted		28	34	11
Dacoity						
Reported		66	52	66
Convicted		2	2	3
Acquitted		7	5	2

[contd.]

1	2	3	4
Robbery			
Reported	243	138	113
Convicted	5	7	2
Acquitted	24	5	—
Riot			
Reported	185	169	162
Convicted	12	6	—
Acquitted	10	1	—
Theft			
Reported	1,833	1,388	1,342
Convicted	85	41	8
Acquitted	247	8	3
House-breaking			
Reported	929	586	606
Convicted	18	16	7
Acquitted	17	4	3
Kidnapping			
Reported	68	82	62
Convicted	2	1	—
Acquitted	3	1	—

Organisation of Police

The district is included in the Bareilly police range, which is under the charge of a deputy inspector general with headquarters at Bareilly. The district police is headed by a superintendent of police who is responsible for its efficiency, discipline and proper performance of its duties. He gathers intelligence regarding the law and order situation in the district both, departmentally as well as from other sources. The police force in the district consists of the civil and the armed police and the prosecution staff.

Civil Police—This wing has to perform duties relating to watch and ward, maintenance of law and order, prevention, detection and investigation of crime and execution of processes and other orders of

law courts. There were 4 inspectors, 90 subinspectors, 91 head constables and 721 constables posted in the district in the year 1978.

For maintenance of peace, law and order and supervision of the work of the police-stations the district has been divided into 5 police circles, 4 under deputy superintendents and one under an assistant superintendent of police and each circle into a number of police-stations each under an inspector called station house officer.

Circlewise location of the police-stations in the district in 1978 is given below :

Police circle	Police-stations	Out-posts
City	Kotwali, Sadar Bazar, Seh-ramau (South)	Kotwali, Fatchpur, Rajghat, Pakar, Sarai Kaiyan, Rosar, Bari, Sadar Bazar, Bahadurganj, Ashfaq-nagar, Cantonment, Lodipur Had-daf, Rosa Usman Bagh, Ajair
Jalalabad	Jalalabad, Kulan, Mirzapur, Paraur	Jalalabad, Allahganj Chhidpuri
Tilhar	Tilhar, Katra, Khudaganj, Jaitipur	Madnapur, Muazampur, Berayaganj, Chathia, Katra
Powayan	Powayan, Banda Khutar, Schramau (North)	Puraya, Lachhmanpur
Kant	Kant, Sindhauli Nigohi	Tikri, Isapur.

Armed Police—The duties of armed police are to provide guards and escorts, to suppress and prevent disorder and restore peace in the disturbed areas and to protect means of communication, government property and other vital installations. The armed police is also used for guarding government treasuries, patrolling and escorting prisoners. It is stationed at the reserve police lines at the district headquarters. The total strength of armed police in the district in 1978 was one inspector, two subinspectors, two reserve subinspectors, 61 head constables and 221 constables.

Prosecution Staff—The prosecution staff in the district was for a very brief period placed under the administrative control of the district magistrate in 1974. But after some time through an amendment made by the State Government, they have been again placed under the superintendent of police. They

conduct proceedings on behalf of the State before the magistrates. They also advise the investigating officers on legal issues arising in the course of investigation of crimes.

In 1978, the prosecution staff in the district consisted of a public prosecutor and 14 assistant public prosecutors.

Village Police

The village chowkidars, numbering 841 in 1978, being part-time servants, are the only agency of the police in the villages. Their main duties are watch and ward and informing the police about the occurrence of crime in their areas. They are paid a monthly pay of Rs fifteen and Rs four as cycle allowance. They are appointed by the district magistrate under the North-West Provinces, Village and Road Police Act, (Act XVI of 1873), but they work under the supervision and control of the superintendent of police.

Pradeshik Vikas Dal

This organised and disciplined body of volunteers was established originally under the name of Prantiya Rakshak Dal, to mobilise manpower, carry out youth welfare activities and to prepare villagers for self-defence against the dacoits or other anti-social elements. The Dal also performs duties like guarding of vital installations, assisting the police in traffic control, preventing looting, maintaining of communications, fire fighting, etc. The paid staff of this organisation in the district consisted of a district organiser and 12 block organisers in 1978. The unpaid staff included 12 block commanders, 126 *halka sardars* (circle leaders), 1,411 *dal patis* (group leaders), 5,740 *tolis nayaks* (section leaders) and 65,552 *rakshaks* (guards) in that year.

The district organiser, besides supervising the work of the block organisers, also actively co-operates with the block development officers in the implementation of the various development programmes under the Five-year Plans. He also organises *shramdan* campaigns, (donation of voluntary labour), training camps, games, sports, etc., in the rural areas.

Government Railway Police

The police-station of the government railway police is located within the premises of the Shahjahanpur railway station. It had a station officer, two head constables and 16 constables in the year

1978. There was one G. R. P. out-post at the Rosa railway station consisting of four head constables and the same number of constables in that year.

The G. R. P. police-station, Shahjahanpur is under the jurisdiction of the Moradabad section of G. R. P. under a deputy superintendent of police designated as section officer.

The duties of government railway police include maintenance of law and order at the railway stations, checking and regulating the passengers' traffic and assisting the railway magistrates in checking and prevention of ticketless travelling in the railway trains. It also deals with the crimes committed within the railway station premises.

Home Guards

This organisation was created after the Chinese Aggression of 1962. The volunteers enrolled in this organisation are trained in fire fighting, first-aid and other rescue works. They render help to people in times of natural calamities. They are also deployed for various other duties such as traffic control, protection of government property, maintenance of law and order, etc. In 1978, a total of 1,780 persons were on the roll in the home guards organisation, comprising 20 companies, each company consisting of three platoons.

Village Defence Societies

These are purely non-official bodies, established with a view to protect villagers from robbery and dacoity. The main functions of these societies are to arrange night patrolling and to strengthen safety measures for the protection of life and property in the rural areas. There were 1,909 village defence societies in the district in 1978.

Jails and Lock-ups

The district jail, situated at the district headquarters, is under the charge of the superintendent. He is assisted by a jailor, a deputy jailor and four assistant jailors. The inspector general of prisons U. P., Lucknow, being the head of the department, exercises control over the administration of the jails throughout the State. The jail hospital is looked after by an assistant medical officer. The chief medical officer of the district is the superintendent of the jail hospital.

The district jail has a capacity to accommodate 443 prisoners and under-trial prisoners. The average daily population of convicts and under-trials from 1973 to 1977 is given in the following statement:

Year	Daily average population	
	Convicts	Under-trials
1973	148	561
1974	116	495
1975	113	465
1976	126	530
1977	123	411

Welfare of Prisoners—Before 1948 the prisoners and the under-trials were categorised in three classes, namely A, B, and C. Since then there are only two categories namely, the 'superior' and the 'ordinary'. After Independence, many facilities and amenities have been provided to the prisoners in the jails with the object of improving the living conditions of the prisoners. They are trained and employed in handicrafts like weaving of *dari*, *niwar*, making of carpets, wooden furniture, etc., for which they are remunerated by cash payments. The government also strives to educate them in reading, writing and simple arithmetic. Facilities to prosecute higher studies and to appear in academic examinations are also provided to the prisoners. Sports and games (in-door and out-door) and social and cultural activities are also organised for the recreation and welfare of jail inmates.

Visitors—The ex officio visitors of the jail are the director of medical and health services, U. P., the commissioner of Bareilly division, the district magistrate and the district and sessions judge. All the members of the State and Central legislatures, elected from the district, all the members of the standing committee of the State legislature on jails, the chairman of the central committee of the Uttar Pradesh Apradh Nirodhak Samiti, the secretary of its district committee and the presiding officers of the municipal board and the Zila Parishad, and such of the members of the public as are appointed by the State Government, are non-official visitors of the district jail.

Revising Board—The district magistrate as chairman, the district and sessions judge and one non-official visitor as members, constitute the revising board for the jail in the district. The main function of the revising board is to consider the revision of the sentences of all casual and habitual convicts, with sentences of three years and above, after they have served a specified period of the sentence and to recommend their release earlier than their due dates.

Lock-ups—There is a lock-up inside the collectorate premises. Under-trials brought from the jail for attendance in the courts are kept here till their being shifted back to the jail. The prosecuting officer acting under the control of the superintendent of police, looks after the working of the lock-up. Each police-station has separate lock-ups for males and females.

At the headquarters of each tahsil, there is a revenue lock-up where persons charged for non-payment of government dues are detained for a maximum period of 14 days.

Probation

The probation scheme was introduced in the district in 1956, after the Independence, under the U. P. First Offenders Probation Act, (Act No. VI of 1938). Subsequently the probation of Offenders Act, (Act No. 20 of 1958) was passed by the Government of India, with a view to removing the defects in the previous State legislation on the subject. A probation officer working under the administrative control of the district magistrate, supervises the activities and conduct of the prisoners released on probation, ensures that they observe the conditions of the bonds executed by them and makes reports regarding them to the courts concerned.

The following statement shows the work done under the probation scheme in the district during the years, 1975 to 1977 :

Type of work	1975	1976	1977
Total number of juvenile delinquents dealt with	72	19	16
Total number of persons let off on furnishing bonds with or without sureties	72	19	16
Number of non-juvenile offenders dealt with under First Offenders Probation Act, 1938	1	—	1
Number of domiciliar visits paid by probation officers	116	3	203

JUSTICE

In ancient times, the ruler was the fountain head of justice, which was administered in his name either by him personally or through his officers in accordance with the *Smritis*, the *Dharmshastras* and customs and traditions. There were mainly three institutions related with administration of justice: village panchayat or Parishad in the village; judge (*nyayadhish*) in the city or town and the king-in-council at the apex.

The Muslims brought with them their own system under which justice was administered according to the Islamic law by the *qazis* (judges) and muftis in the towns. The rural areas were, however, not affected by changes in governments or the rulers, and panchayats continued to function as usual, a position that obtained in the country till the early years of the British rule.

The criminal justice was administered in accordance with the Mohammedan Law and in civil disputes the personal law was applied. The British introduced many legal reforms in the country and codified the laws—the Indian Penal Code, 1860, the Indian Evidence Act, 1872, the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, and the Civil Procedure Code, 1908, being some of the more important statutes.

For the administration of criminal justice, the district after its formation in 1813-14 was in the charge of the collector, who was assisted by a number of deputy collectors. Tahsildars were stationed at the tahsil headquarters to try revenue cases. In the early years after the formation of the district, the judicial set-up in the district consisted of a district judge, a subordinate judge with original jurisdiction in the city and four *munsifs* one for each tahsil. The district judge disposed of criminal cases under appellate jurisdiction. In 1840, there was one district judge, a civil judge and five *munsifs* including one at Kaimganj and other at Budaun. These *munsifs* worked under the supervision of Shahjahanpur judiciary. In 1862, some changes were made in the judicial set-up in the district and tahsil Jalalabad was transferred to *munsif* Tilhar. The whole of district Budaun in respect of civil cases was placed under the jurisdiction of Shahjahanpur judiciary in 1879 and this arrangement continued

till 1913, when separate judgeship was established for Budaun. In 1914, the post of *munsif* at Powayan was abolished and that at Tilhar was abolished in 1949.

Since then a number of temporary and additional courts have been established to share the increasing work load of litigation in the district. The present judicial set-up of the judiciary in the district is briefly described below :

Civil Justice

In addition to the district judge, there were six additional district judges in 1977 exercising concurrent jurisdiction with him. All of them were vested with powers of unlimited pecuniary jurisdiction in civil cases, of hearing revisions and certain other cases for which jurisdiction has been conferred upon them under various enactments and statutes. In addition, there was also a civil judge with jurisdiction to decide suits of unlimited value and appellate jurisdiction to decide suits of up to the valuation of Rs 5,000. Small cause cases and civil suits of lesser value were decided by six *munsifs* including five additional *munsifs*.

The following statement gives the position of case work in civil courts in the district in the year, 1977 :

Cases	Number of suits
Pending at the beginning of the year, 1977	1,012
Instituted during the year, 1977	973
Disposed during the year, 1977	1,121
Pending at the end of the year, 1977	867

Of the suits instituted in the civil courts of the district in 1977, 535 involved immovable property, 209 involved movable property, 6 were connected with mortgage of disputes, 33 were of matrimonial matters and 193 were of other categories.

The number of suits instituted in 1977, according to their valuation, was as follows :

Valuation	Number of suits
Not exceeding Rs 100	17
Exceeding Rs 100 but not Rs 1,000	650
Exceeding Rs 1,000 but not Rs 5,000	223
Exceeding Rs 5,000 but not Rs 10,000	59
Exceeding Rs 10,000 but not Rs 1 lakh	27

The total value of civil suits instituted during the year 1977, was Rs 20,85,629. The details of the disposal of civil cases in 1977, was as follows :

Manner of disposal	Number of suits
Number of suits disposed of after trial	474
Dismissed for default	227
Decided without trial	117
Decreed <i>ex parte</i>	207
On admission of claims	4
Settled by compromise	92

The number of appeals instituted and disposed of in 1977 was as follows :

Nature of appeals	Instituted	Disposed of
Regular civil appeals	210	308
Miscellaneous civil appeals	169	729

Criminal Justice

The court of district and sessions judge is the highest criminal court in the district, having the power to award capital punishment subject to confirmation by the high court. He is assisted by six

additional district and sessions judges, an assistant sessions judge, a chief judicial magistrate, a judicial magistrate, a special judicial magistrate and six *munsif* magistrates including five additional *munsif* magistrates. It was in 1977 that the aforesaid number of presiding officers were posted in the district. The following statement (A and B) give the number of the cases instituted and persons sentenced by the sessions courts during the last three years (1975, 1976, 1977) :

STATEMENT A

Nature of offences (cases instituted)	1975	1976	1977
1	2	3	4
Affecting life	192	299	195
Kidnapping and forcible abduction	25	15	11
Hurt	5	3	4
Rape	39	27	21
Unnatural offence	—	—	1
Extortion	—	1	..
Robbery and dacoity	46	168	82

STATEMENT B

Persons tried/sentenced	1975	1976	1977
1	2	3	4
Persons tried	740	686	710
Sentenced to death	4	5	11
Life imprisonment	92	116	242
Rigorous imprisonment	104	60	186
Simple imprisonment	1	—	1
Fined only	25	13	47
Other punishments	6	4	1

Executive Magistrates

The district magistrate is the head of the criminal administration of the district and in that capacity exercises control over the

police also. The superintendent of police is required to keep the district magistrate posted with promptitude with all information relating to law and order in the district. The superintendent of police also seeks his concurrence in all important matters regarding transfers, postings and promotions of the station officers and the inspectors.

Under the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Code, 1898 the district magistrate, being at the apex of criminal administration in the district, exercised control and supervision over other magistrates, in which task he was assisted by an additional district magistrate (judicial) along with judicial magistrates of the first class and magistrates in charge of subdivisions posted in the district, who also disposed of criminal cases in their respective jurisdictions.

The district magistrate being the head of criminal administration and the chief executive magistrate of the district continues to be responsible for maintenance of law and order and peace in the district even after the separation of judiciary from executive as stipulated under the new Criminal Procedure Code of 1974. The four subdivisional magistrates and tahsildars are vested with powers of executive magistrates and they assist the district magistrate in discharge of his duties.

The new Criminal Procedure Code enforced from April 1, 1974, has deprived the executive magistrates of their judicial powers but they continue to exercise jurisdiction in respect of cases of preventive and prohibitory nature under relevant sections of the new code.

The following statement gives the position regarding the criminal cases instituted in various courts under the district magistrate under the new Criminal Procedure Code, and other local and Special Acts for the last three years (1975 to 1977) :

Year	Cases under Cr. P. C.		Cases under local and Special Acts	
	Cases instituted	Persons involved	Cases institute	Persons involved
1975	1,454	8,590	323	412
1976	1,943	10,346	124	157
1977	2,265	11,976	288	316

The number of persons tried and sentenced in the various courts under district magistrate, are indicated in the following statement:

Year	Persons tried	Sentenced to rigorous imprisonment	Sentenced to simple imprisonment	Fined only
1975	8,159	203	298	43
1976	9,183	181	207	7
1977	10,150	175	151	25

After the enforcement of Criminal Procedure Code of 1974, the cases punishable with simple or rigorous imprisonment were to be tried by presiding officers of the judiciary, the figures in the above table show the cases in which imprisonment was awarded by executive magistrates, as the cases were pending in their courts at the time of the enforcement of the new Cr. P. C. it being provided that such pending cases shall continue to be tried by executive magistrates.

Separation of Judiciary from Executive

Before October 2, 1967, the judicial magistrates who tried criminal cases under the appellate authority of sessions judge, worked under the administrative control of the district magistrate for purposes of law and order duties. The process of separation of judiciary from executive was initiated with effect from October 2, 1967, when the additional district magistrate (judicial) was placed under the administrative control of the High Court of Judicature at Allahabad. This process reached its culmination on April 1, 1974, when the new Code of Criminal Procedure was enforced. It envisages complete separation of judiciary from executive and makes some far-reaching changes in the nomenclature, classification and powers of the courts. It has also given extensive powers to police officers to deal effectively with crime. The new code also gives a fair deal to persons convicted in matters of computation of their jail sentences. The process for trial has been simplified and improved with a view to expedite the disposal of cases.

Nyaya Panchayats

To give the people training and a feeling of involvement with the administration of justice, the U. P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947 estab-

lished a chain of panchayati *adalats* (courts) throughout the State, which were renamed as *nyaya* panchayats in 1955. The jurisdiction of a *nyaya* panchayat usually extends over an area of 5 to 11 *gaon sabhas*, depending upon the population of the constituent villages. The total number of *nyaya* panchayats in the district in 1978 was 126. The *panchas* of the *nyaya* panchayats are nominated by the prescribed authority (district magistrate) in consultation with a committee constituted for the purpose. The *panchas* elect a *sarpanch* and a *sahayak sarpanch* from among themselves, whose tenure of office is five years. The cases are heard by a bench of five *panchas* constituted by the *sarpanch*. A minimum of three *panchas*, including the chairman of the bench constitute the quorum. The *nyaya* panchayats have been vested with jurisdiction to try cases under different sections of the following Acts ;

(a) Cases under the U. P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947,

(b) Cases under the Indian Penal Code relating to petty offences such as public nuisance, trespass, intimidation and threat, etc., and cases of theft or misappropriation involving property not exceeding an amount of Rs 50 in value,

(c) Cases under the Cattle Trespass Act, 1871, relating to damage to property or crops by cattle, etc., and their seizure or rescue by force,

(d) Cases under the United Provinces Primary Education Act, 1919, and

(e) Cases under the Public Gambling Act, 1867, relating to gambling houses or gambling in public places, etc.

In civil suits the jurisdiction of a *nyaya* panchayat extends up to a valuation of Rs 500. It may also try revenue cases, if the parties agree in writing to such a course. The *nyaya* panchayats, are however, not empowered to pass sentences of imprisonment and can impose fines up to Rs 100 only.

Revisions against the decision of *nyaya* panchayats in civil cases lie to the *munsifs* and in criminal and revenue cases to the subdivisional magistrates. The following statement gives the details

of cases tried and disposed of by the *nyaya* panchayats in the district in 1975-76, 1976-77 and 1977-78 :

Year	Cases instituted	Cases disposed of
1975-76	682	918
1976-77	449	393
1977-78	292	296

Bar Association

There are two bar associations in the district, namely, the collectorate bar association and the civil bar association. Both the associations are registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860.

The collectorate bar association has a total number of 130 members on its roll, while the civil court bar association has a membership of 200 lawyers. The facilities of reading-room library and rest room are available to the members of both the associations. The office of the collectorate bar association and the civil bar association are situated in the collectorate and the civil court compounds respectively.

The main objects of these associations are to maintain a high standard of professional efficiency and decorum and to look after the interests of the members.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The departments of the State Government concerned with general and revenue administration and law, order and justice in the district have been described in chapters relating to them. The administrative set up at the district level of other important departments such as agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry, soil conservation, co-operatives, education, public works, industries and forest are briefly discussed below :

Agriculture Department

The main function of this department is to encourage increase in farm production by persuading the cultivators to adopt improved seeds and practices and modern agricultural methods suited to local conditions and to manage uninterrupted supply of inputs like quality seeds, fertilizers, pesticides, insecticides and expert guidance for raising healthy crops. The district comes under the administrative control of the deputy director of agriculture who has his headquarters at Bareilly. Locally, the district agriculture officer is in charge of the department. He is assisted in his work by a number of officers and trained workers (assistant development officers at the block level and supervisors at the village level) and other general staff in pushing forward various agricultural programmes, including extension of the area under high-yielding crops, oil-seeds, cotton, etc. and the formulation and implementation of the Five-year Plan schemes.

At the block level the activities of this department are supervised by the block development officer and assistant development officer (agriculture) who are responsible for the development of agriculture on scientific lines.

In 1977-78 there were 27 seed stores in the district maintained by the agriculture department, each manned by one or two persons working under an assistant agriculture inspector.

Horticulture Department

For the purpose of development of horticulture, the district falls in the Bareilly region and is under the jurisdiction of a deputy director of horticulture stationed at Bareilly.

At the district level, the district horticulture officer is the controlling officer of horticulture activities and the staff under him includes a senior horticulture inspector, a district horticulture inspector and a number of gardeners.

Their functions are to render technical guidance in respect of plantation of fruit trees, cultivation of vegetables and flowers and supply of improved seeds, grafts, seedlings, saplings, etc., and marketing and storage of vegetables and fruits.

The department also supervises the cold storages and private nurseries in the district.

Animal Husbandry Department

The district falls under the jurisdiction of the deputy director of animal husbandry posted at Bareilly. The district live-stock officer is in charge of the department at the district level. He looks after the work of improving cattle and poultry breeds, preventing and treating diseases and controlling the outbreak of epidemics among animals and implementing the Plan schemes of the department and of the piscicultural programme and applied nutrition scheme. The staff under him in the district in 1978, included one Pashudhan Vikas Adhikari, one Pashudhan Vikas Sahayak, 19 veterinary surgeons, 21 stockmen and a number of veterinary compouncers.

Soil Conservation

The regional head of the department is the deputy director of agriculture (soil conservation), stationed at Bareilly.

At the district level, there is a soil conservation officer who conducts surveys and prepares plans and initiates measures to combat erosion of farmland by wind, water and other causes.

His subordinate staff includes a technical assistant, two junior engineers, five soil conservation inspectors and 25 assistant soil conservation inspectors. Their job is to provide technical assistance to the cultivators for arresting soil erosion by means of bunds, levelling and construction of pakka water channels in the affected areas.

Co-operative Department

This department deals with the organisation, registration and promotion of co-operative societies in the district.

There is, at the regional level, a deputy registrar, stationed at Bareilly. At the district level there is the assistant registrar who is assisted by four district co-operative officers (one in each tahsil), a senior research inspector, 8 circle officers, 14 assistant development officers (one in each block), 27 inspectors, 72 supervisors and four co-operative farming inspectors.

Education Department

The organisational set-up of the education department in the district follows uniform pattern prevailing in the State. It is headed by a district inspector of schools who is responsible for the supervision, control and inspection of higher secondary educational institutions in the district.

A district Basic education officer has been working since 1972 to supervise the junior and senior Basic schools in the district. He is assisted by one additional Basic education officer (female), being in charge of girls' education up to senior Basic stage. The other supervisory staff under the Basic education officer consists of two deputy inspectors, a deputy inspectress, 18 subdeputy inspectors and five assistant inspectresses.

The Sanskrit *pathshalas* and the Urdu medium primary schools (*maktabs*) are respectively under the over-all charge of the inspector, Sanskrit *pathshalas* and the inspector, Urdu medium schools having their headquarters at Allahabad.

The regional offices of the deputy director of education and the inspectress of girls' schools are located at Bareilly.

Public Works Department

The public works division of which this district is a part falls in circle III of the public works department having headquarters at Bareilly. The head of the public works division is an executive engineer who is responsible for the construction and maintenance of roads and bridges and government buildings. In 1976-77 he had under him one assistant executive engineer and seven assistant engineers.

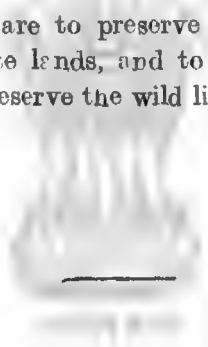
Industries Department

The district is included in the Rohilkhand zone, with headquarters at Bareilly under a joint director of industries.

At the district level the district industries officer now designated as General Manager, District Industries Centres looks after the development and working of both the small scale and large-scale industries. His duties include rendering assistance for the setting up of new industries and the expansion of those in existence.

Forest Department

The district is covered by the Powayan range of the south Kheri forest division. The office of forest range officer is situated at Mailani in Kheri district nearly 12 km. from Khutar. The Powayan range is divided into ten beats which are under the control of one deputy ranger assisted by four foresters and 8 forest guards. The main activities of the department are to preserve and improve the existing forest areas, afforest waste lands, and to enhance the productivity of the forests as well as preserve the wild life.



CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

Local autonomy was a special feature of the ancient Hindu polity, and in that context it is reasonable to believe that viable units of self-government functioned in the villages and towns of the district for a long time till they became extinct for want of State Patronage. In the absence of any record it is not possible to delineate the rise and fall of these institutions in the district from the earliest times.

In ancient times villages enjoyed large measure of autonomy and were governed by the panchayats which exercised both administrative and judicial powers. These village institutions received great setback under the Muslim rule. During the Mughal administration, many of the municipal functions in the cities were usually in the hands of the kotwal, who was responsible for watch and ward, elementary conservancy and regulation of the offensive trades. Over-centralization of administration during the early British period brought about almost total extinction of the traditional institutions of local self-government both in the rural and urban areas. The village institutions that existed were mutilated in form, devoid of all power and status of the former days confining their authority only to the social life of the village community.

The events of 1857, however, had an eye-opening and softening influence on the British rulers and the subsequent years saw numerous steps being taken for gradual decentralization of administration with a view to usher in local self-governing institutions in the urban and rural areas of the district. Shahjahanpur was the first municipality constituted in 1864 under the Municipal Act of 1850, while Tilhar was so constituted in 1872 under the North-Western Provinces Municipal Improvements Act, 1868.

Originally the town of Shahjahanpur was administered by a nominated body of officials designated as local agents, having the power to raise funds for the provision of watch and ward by means of a house-tax and disposing of the surplus revenues of the ferries and tolls. The place was later administered as a town under the

Bengal Chaukidari Act, 1856 (Act XX of 1856), as also was Tilhar. The first municipal committee was a nominated body and the elective principle was introduced in 1873. The constitution underwent many changes as a result of the passing of the N.W.P. and Oudh Municipalities Act, 1873, the N.W.P. and Oudh Municipalities Act, 1883 (which also changed the name from municipal committee to municipal board) and the N.W.P. and Oudh Municipalities Act, 1900 (Act I of 1900). Notable progress towards popular representation in the municipal boards was made by the U. P. Municipalities Act, 1916 (Act II of 1916), which for the first time permitted the election of a non-official person as chairman. This Act continues to be the guiding statute for the working of municipalities and notified areas in the State. A number of amendments have been made in it to adjust it to the changing situations in recent years, particularly in the post-Independence period.

The Bengal Chaukidari Act, 1856 (Act XX of 1856) was applied to those towns which were not big enough to be governed as municipalities and yet had a population big enough to make it necessary to provide rudimentary civic services. This Act was first applied to Shahjahanpur and Tilhar in the district. In 1860, it was also applied to Khudaganj, Jalalabad, Powayan and Katra. In the same year the Act was applied to Baragaon, but was withdrawn in 1886 on account of the place losing its importance. These towns usually derived their income from the house-tax and devoted their income to the maintenance of town police, the conservancy staff and minor local improvements. The above Act was replaced by the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914. The principal change made by it was to relieve the towns of their watch and ward duties and make the town area committee primarily responsible for the sanitation of the towns. This statute with suitable modifications made in it from time to time continues in operation in the district.

The first legal provision for the establishment of self-government in rural areas was the passing of the N.W.P. and Oudh Local Boards Act, 1871. Earlier to that, the administration of local funds other than those derived from the town duties and house-tax, was entrusted to various district committees like the road and ferry funds committee and school cess committee. These were joined to form a district committee in 1871, when the various cesses were consolidated into a single demand. The different committees continued to function in

their respective spheres, under the general control of the district committee till the formation of the district board under the North-Western Provinces and Oudh Local Boards Act, 1883, when the elective principle was also introduced. In 1906, the district board was reconstituted with more powers under the U. P. District Boards Act of 1906. The U. P. District Boards Act, 1922, made some more changes in the constitution and functions of the board. The number of members was raised and the system of separate electorates for Muslims and non-Muslims was also introduced. From now on the chairman was elected indirectly. The jurisdiction of the board was extended to cover the entire non-urban areas of the district with more emphasis on rural development. The district board was also empowered to levy a tax on circumstance and property and to tap other sources to augment its income by imposing licence fee, local rates, etc.

With the advent of Independence in 1947, and promulgation of the new republican constitution in the country in 1950 universal adult franchise was introduced in the whole country. The election of president of the district board was also made direct. The number of members was raised and seats were also reserved for the people belonging to the Scheduled Castes. Government also increased its grant to the board and thus strengthened its financial position. As a further leap towards more decentralisation, the district board was converted into the Antaram Zila Parishad by the U. P. Antaram Zila Parishads Act, 1958. A more comprehensive statute, the U. P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam, 1961, covering the entire gamut of activities and administration of the local bodies at the district and development block levels with close organic links with the *gaon* panchayats (established by the U. P. Panchayat Raj Act of 1947) was enforced in 1962.

There were in 1978, three municipal boards, a notified area, two town areas, a Zila Parishad, 14 Kshettra Samitis and 1,411 *gaon* panchayats in the district.

MUNICIPAL BOARDS

Shahjahanpur

Shahjahanpur is the oldest municipality of the district being constituted in 1864 under the Municipal Act of 1850. The constitution of the municipal board underwent many changes as a result of

passing of several Acts in later years. Ever since the passing and enforcement of the U. P. Municipalities Act, 1916 (as amended from time to time), the affairs of the municipality are managed under it.

The municipality covered an area of 11.37 sq. km. and a population of 1,35,604 in 1971 and is divided into 24 wards. One member is elected from each ward directly through adult franchise. A number of seats are also reserved for the Scheduled Castes. Normally the term of the municipal board is five years, but it may be extended by the government in exceptional circumstances. The municipal board is at present under supersession and is being administered by the district magistrate.

Finances—The main sources of income of the board are municipal rates and taxes, realisation under special Acts, revenue derived from municipal property and government grants and contributions. The main items of expenditure are general administration and collection charges, public safety, public health and convenience, street lighting, waterworks and other public works. The details of income and expenditure of the board for the last 10 years (i.e. from 1968-69 to 1977-78) are given in Statement I(a) and (b) at the end of the chapter.

Waterworks—The town has its own water-supply arrangement which is looked after by a waterworks engineer with the assistance of a staff of 30 persons. There were 294 public taps on the roads and streets and 5,078 private tap connections in the city in 1978. An amount of Rs 4,16,831 was spent by the board on this head during 1977-78.

Street Lighting—Formerly, kerosene oil lamps were the only means for illuminating the streets of the town, but now it is done by means of electricity. There were 3,092 electric street lamps in the town in 1978. An amount of Rs 3,26,791 was spent on this head during 1977-78.

Public Health and Medical Services—The public health department of the board looks after sanitation and cleaning of roads, medical aid and slaughter houses. It is under the control of a medical officer of health. The municipal board maintains a homoeopathic dispensary and a maternity and child welfare centre. It also employs 7 vaccinators who carry out vaccination work in the town.

Education—The board maintains a montessori school which has 204 students on roll. It spent Rs 44,550 on education during 1977-78.

Other Activities—The board manages seven parks and an orphanage in the town. It also maintained 137.36 km. of metalled and 51.14 km. of unmetalled roads in the town in 1977-78.

Tilhar

The municipality of Tilhar was constituted in 1872 under the North-Western Provinces Municipal Improvements Act, 1868 and is now administered under the U. P. Municipalities Act of 1916. It had an area of 3.47 sq. km. and a population of 26,837 in 1971. The town is divided into 12 wards. The municipal board at present, is superseded and is administered by the district magistrate.

Finances—The income of the municipal board is mainly derived from revenue drawn from municipal property, realisations under special Acts, grants and contributions by the government and other miscellaneous sources. The main items of expenditure are general administration and collection charges, public safety, public health and conveniences. Details of income and expenditure of the board for the last 10 years (from 1967-68 to 1976-77) are given in Statements II (a) and (b) at the end of the chapter.

Waterworks—The water-supply scheme of the town was completed in 1976. The waterworks department consists of a waterworks engineer who is assisted by a staff consisting of seven persons. The total length of the pipe-lines in the town was 17.8 km. in 1977. There were 33 public taps and 326 private water connections in the town in 1977. An amount of Rs 44,907 was spent for this purpose in 1976-77.

Street Lighting—Electricity was made available to the town in 1954. There were 615 electric lamps and 100 tube lights on the streets of the town in 1977. An amount of Rs 88,338 was spent by the board on this item in 1976-77.

Public Health and Medical Services—The municipal board looks after the sanitation of the town and makes arrangements for the removal of garbage and night-soil for which it has employed a sanitary inspector and a staff of 92 persons including sweepers. It also undertakes vaccination work in the town, and for this purpose a vaccinator is employed by the board. A sum of Rs 4,11,072 was spent by the board under this head during 1976-77.

Drainage—Drainage system of the town is well maintained and it has 14 km. of pucca and 63 km. of kutchha drains. The sullage

water and refuse is converted into compost by trenching and is sold by public auction to the cultivators.

Jalalabad

The town became a municipality in 1975 under the U. P. Municipalities Act, 1916. Previously it was administered as a town area under the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914. It had an area of 3.08 sq. km. and a population of 11,101 in 1971. The town is divided into 10 wards. The municipal board, at present, is superseded and is being administered by the district magistrate.

Finances—The main sources of income of the board are government grants, revenue derived from municipal property and grants and contribution by government. The board spends its income on general administration and collection charges, sanitation and street lighting and other public works. The details of income and expenditure of the board for the last 10 years from 1967-68 to 1976-77 are given in Statements III (a) and (b) at the end of the chapter.

Street Lighting—Formerly, kerosene oil lamps were the only means for lighting the streets of the town, but now it is being done by 212 electric lamps. An amount of Rs.17,051 was spent by the board for this purpose during 1976-77.

Public Health and Medical Services—The board looks after the sanitation of the town and makes arrangements for the removal of garbage and night-soil. It has employed a sanitary inspector and other staff including sweepers.

NOTIFIED AREA

Railway Settlement Rosa

Rosa, situated in Shahjahanpur tahsil, was declared notified area in 1968. It had a population of 5,086 and an area of about 2.12 sq. km. in 1971. Rosa notified area committee consists of a chairman and nine members. Its income during 1977-78 was Rs 5,384 and the expenditure Rs 1,442. The details of the receipts and expenditure of the railway settlement notified area Rosa for nine years ending 1977-78 are given in Statement IV at the end of the chapter.

TOWN AREAS

In 1978, there were 2 town areas in the district those of Powayan and Katra. They are administered under the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914. Each of the town areas is administered by a committee

consisting of a chairman and a number of members (all directly elected) ranging from 9 to 15, according to the population of the place. Members are elected for four years, it being open to the State government to extend the term in exceptional circumstances. Seats are also reserved for persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes. The town area committees are empowered to levy taxes on houses, on circumstance and property, on agricultural land situated within the limits of the town area, etc. Other sources of income are the sale proceeds of manure and rent of *nazul* lands under its management. The main functions of the town area committees usually include the providing of sanitation and street lighting and construction and maintenance of drains, streets and roads, in the town.

Powayan

Powayan was constituted as a town in 1960 under the Bengal Chaukidari Act, 1856 (Act XX of 1856) and became a town area under the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914 (Act II of 1914). Its income during 1977-78 was Rs 2,72,549 and its expenditure Rs 2,42,476. Electricity was made available to Powayan in 1965. There were 130 lamps in the town for lighting the streets in 1978. It had a population of 8,933 and area of 0.80 sq. km. in 1971. The details of the receipts and expenditure of the town area for the 10 years ending 1977-78 are given in Statement V at the end of the chapter.

Katra

The place was constituted as a town in 1860 under Act XX of 1856. After the enforcement of the U. P. Town Areas Act, 1914, it has become a town area. It had a population of 10,234 and an area of 8.55 sq. km. in 1971. In 1976-77, the total income was Rs 1,77,884 and the expenditure amounted to Rs 1,60,565. Electricity was made available to the town in 1959. Lighting of streets was being done by 123 electric lamps in 1978. The town area has its own waterworks which was completed in 1967. In 1978, the total length of pipe line was about 2,750 metres. There were 69 private water-tap connections and 42 public taps in that year. The details of the receipts and expenditure of the town area committee for 10 years ending 1976-77 are given in Statement VI at the end of the chapter.

PANCHAYAT RAJ

Panchayati Raj, as the very name suggests, is the system which has ushered in democratic decentralisation of administration and

devolution of power and responsibilities to village institutions. As in other parts of the country, it has existed in some form or the other in the villages of the district for centuries. The significant feature of the present system is the newly constituted structure of self-governing bodies with a three-tier organisation—the *gaon sabha* being at the base, the Kshettra Samitis in the middle and the Zila Parishad at the apex. There is a *gaon panchayat* (which is the executive body of the *gaon sabha*) for every village with a minimum population of 250, a Kshettra Samiti (block committee) for each development block and a Zila Parishad for the district as a whole excluding the urban areas. These institutions have been constituted with the primary objective of development of initiative in the people of the rural areas and creation of opportunities for the evolution of local leadership in the villages, so that the responsibility for the planned development may be taken over by the village folk themselves. The institutions within this three-tier system are organically linked with each other to ensure continuous co-ordination and co-operation and two-way exchange of ideas.

ZILA PARISHAD

Originally the body administering the rural areas was the district board which was constituted under the North-Western Provinces and Oudh Local Boards Act, 1883. The U. P. District Boards Act of 1906 and that of 1922 are important landmarks in the growth and development of the district board (now Zila Parishad). They had made important constitutional changes and had conferred wider administrative and financial powers on the board for taking up rural development programme, particularly construction of roads and schools and provision of medical and public health services.

In 1958, important changes were made in the constitution and responsibilities of the board after the enforcement of the U. P. Antarim Zila Parishads Act, 1958, which brought into existence the local body known as the Antarim Zila Parishad into which were merged the district planning committee and the district board. Under the U. P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam, 1961, enforced in 1962 the word 'Antarim' was dropped and the present Zila Parishad formally came into being in 1963. The Zila Parishad comprises of all the *pramukhs* of the Kshettra Samitis, the presidents of the municipal boards, the members of the Parliament and of the State Legislature elected from the district and representatives of the

Co-operative institutions of the district. Seats are also reserved for women and members of the Scheduled Castes. The Adhyaksha (presiding officer) is elected indirectly by the members of the Zila Parishad for a term of five years, which can be extended by the State Government in special circumstances.

The functions of the Zila Parishad are comprehensive, embracing those which were the concern of the old district board and the district planning committees and include the implementation of the Five-year Plan schemes of the district and the utilization of the funds allotted by government for this purpose in the fields of agriculture, co-operation, animal husbandary, welfare of children, young people and women, etc., as well as the raising and expending of taxes levied by it for certain specific activities with which it is directly concerned.

Finances—The main sources of income of the Zila Parishad are government grants, local rates and cesses, tax on circumstance and property, cattle pounds and fairs and exhibitions and the major heads of expenditure being general administration and collection charges, medical and public health, fairs and exhibitions and public works. Details of income and expenditure of the Zila Parishad for 10 years (from 1967-68 to 1976-77) are given in Statements VII(a) and (b) at the end of the chapter.

Public Health and Medical Services—The Zila Parishad, looks after the vaccination and medical facilities in the rural areas of the district. It maintained 3 hospitals in the district in 1977. There were 14 vaccinators who carried out vaccination work in the district. An amount of Rs 94·371 was spent by the Zila Parishad on medical and public health services in 1976-77.

Public Works—Zila Parishad maintained 174·00 km. of metalled and 218·00 km. of unmetalled roads in the district and it spent an amount of Rs 3,11,347 on public works during 1976-77.

KSHETTRA SAMITIS

There were 14 Kshettra Samitis (one for each development block) in the district in 1977. With the enforcement of the U. P. Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam, 1961 in the district in 1962, the functions that had previously been the concern of the block development committees devolved upon the Kshettra Samitis. The membership of one such Samiti consists of all the *pradhans* of the *gaon sabhas* included in the development block, all the chairmen of th

town area committees, the members of the Zila Parishad who belong to the development block, members of the Parliament and of the State Legislature elected from the block area and representatives of the co-operative institutions in the block. Seats are also reserved for women and members of the Scheduled Castes. The *pramukh* (chairman) of each Kshettra Samiti is elected by its members. The block development officer is its chief executive officer. The main functions of the Samitis are the achievements of the targets fixed in the Plan schemes of the development blocks in the spheres of agriculture, minor irrigation, co-operation, animal husbandary, fisheries, education, social education, public health, welfare of children, youth and women, etc., and the utilisation of the funds available in the budget of the Samitis for these purposes.

GAON PANCHAYATS

At the village level *gaon* panchayat is the basic institution of local self-government and the foundation of all decentralised administration. There are sufficient reasons to believe that in ancient times these institutions flourished and reached a very high degree of development in the district and not only regulated the civic life of villages, but served to settle disputes by arbitration and other methods.

The Muslim rulers concerned themselves generally with the urban areas or the headquarters of their administrative set-up and were indifferent towards life and well-being in the villages. During the British rule, these institutions further suffered almost total eclipse, because the government authority was vested in the officials appointed by the government and the administration was highly centralised. The first and the only notable British measure in this direction was the U. P. Village Panchayats Act of 1920, which authorised the collector to establish a panchayat for any village or a group of villages where the villagers wanted such an institution.

After the achievement of Independence, government gave serious thought to the necessity of resuscitation of *gaon* panchayats and the result was the enactment of the U. P. Panchayat Raj Act, 1947. There came into existence in each village three types of bodies for the purpose of day-to-day administration. These are the *gaon sabhas*, *gaon* panchayats and *nyaya* panchayats, which were, respectively, the legislative, executive and judicial bodies. It was enforced in the district on August 15, 1949, and 595 *gaon sabhas* and as many *gaon* panchayats were constituted in the district.

In 1978, there were 1,411 *gaon sabhas* and as many *gaon panchayats* and 125 *nyaya panchayats* in the district. A *gaon sabha* is constituted for a village or a group of villages with a minimum population of 250 persons and consists of all the adult population of the village or villages. The *gaon panchayat*, which is executive organ of the *gaon sabha*, has a *pradhan* (president) and an *up-pradhan* (vice-president), the former and the members of the *gaon panchayat* being elected by the members of the *gaon sabha* for a term of five years. The number of *gaon panchayat* varies from 15 to 30. The members of the *gaon panchayat* elect an *up-pradhan* from amongst themselves.

The resuscitation of the *gaon panchayats* has been a far-reaching and comprehensive step towards decentralisation of power. The *gaon panchayats* of the district control and manage all village activities concerned with community interests, their chief concerns being implementation of village Plans in the spheres of agriculture, minor irrigation, co-operation, afforestation, animal husbandary, construction of wells, health and sanitation, village communications, welfare activities relating to children, youth and women, registration of births, and deaths, etc. Other important duties of the *gaon panchayats* are the prevention of illegal occupation of land of the *gaon sabha* and regulation of markets and fairs. The main sources of income of the panchayats for these activities are government grants, voluntary contributions and taxes raised by them. In 1977-78, the total income of the *gaon panchayats* of the district was Rs 5,80,281 and the expenditure was Rs 5,98,606. Particulars of the main activities of the *gaon panchayats* of the district in the three years ending 1977-78 are given in the Statement below :

Work done	Year		
	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78
Taxes collected (amount in Rs)	5,84,787	5,76,782	5,66,515
Construction of <i>kharanjas</i> (in km.)	270	433	26
Construction of metalled roads (in km.)	105	200.5	—
Construction of <i>guls</i> (in km.)	80	90.2	99
No. of wells constructed	83	80	98
No. of hand-pumps installed	240	240	101
Construction of drains (in km.)	25	22.3	19.5
No. of public latrines constructed	35	53	28
No. of primary school buildings constructed	12	29	2

STATEMENT I (a)
Receipts (in Rs), Municipal Board, Shahjahanpur

Reference Page No. 208

Year	Municipal rates and taxes	Realisation under special Acts	Revenue derived from municipal property, etc., other than taxes	Grants and contributions	Miscellaneous	Other sources	Total receipts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1968-69	18,16,947	7,977	2,85,729	10,16,452	38,972	19,925	31,86,002
1968-70	19,41,979	10,040	3,00,126	7,61,343	54,768	2,96,479	33,64,735
1970-71	20,21,223	6,177	3,36,950	8,73,499	19,022	12,804	22,69,675
1971-72	20,15,055	7,227	3,41,321	9,49,212	53,297	7,90,364	41,56,976
1972-73	19,50,088	6,189	3,29,095	6,53,572	80,058	41,450	30,63,432
1973-74	21,64,044	4,048	4,95,387	4,39,406	55,363	38,365	31,96,603
1974-75	24,33,131	2,998	4,84,683	12,09,795	1,89,199	7,32,445	50,52,231
1975-76	33,83,294	3,884	4,45,887	7,29,971	1,49,711	41,353	47,54,100
1976-77	43,75,031	6,412	3,74,208	7,83,432	58,987	25,070	56,20,140
1977-78	44,84,961	4,266	4,86,949	6,76,079	57,959	38,258	57,48,502

STATEMENT I (b)
Expenditure (in Rs), Municipal Board, Shahjahanpur

Reference Page No. 208.

Year	General administration and collection charges	Public safety	Public health and convenience	Education	Contribution	Miscellaneous	Other sources	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1968-69	3,12,037	1,25,379	16,17,780	4,21,145	7,698	1,29,750	94,355	27,08,144
1969-70	3,11,727	1,97,527	17,14,658	5,62,422	4,000	2,66,143	24,44,214	33,00,691
1970-71	4,53,654	2,42,435	16,41,113	5,94,698	—	3,00,000	16,57,94	33,97,694
1971-72	4,37,230	1,77,292	20,59,687	6,11,597	8,000	2,08,037	2,03,929	37,05,762
1972-73	4,08,747	1,71,156	17,58,398	4,08,581	4,000	2,80,554	1,17,601	31,49,037
1973-74	5,05,220	2,27,269	23,11,275	22,335	41,000	2,80,554	1,01,863	34,52,516
1974-75	7,29,781	2,65,221	35,67,931	24,795	4,000	2,99,656	1,15,561	50,16,945
1975-76	6,66,018	2,69,756	32,01,272	27,625	4,000	3,92,247	1,93,100	47,56,018
1976-77	7,65,540	3,14,201	30,39,300	38,458	4,000	3,87,202	1,69,619	47,18,320
1977-78	8,53,224	3,77,129	45,18,267	44,550	4,000	3,92,495	3,41,130	65,30,795

STATEMENT II (a)

Receipts (in Rs), Municipal Board, Tilhar

Reference Page No. 209

Year	Realisa- tion under Special Acts	Revenue derived from Municipal property, etc., other than taxes	Grants and contribu- tions	Miscella- neous	Other sources	Total receipts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1967-68	267	505	62,172	1,998	2,49,451	3,14,393
1968-69	254	725	2,52,191	4,998	2,79,886	5,38,054
1969-70	657	220	1,56,359	7,765	2,95,790	4,60,791
1970-71	115	1,411	1,90,624	53,632	2,67,583	5,13,365
1971-72	700	952	1,99,983	1,971	4,09,615	6,13,221
1972-73	955	13,120	1,08,106	8,285	3,65,002	4,93,468
1973-74	491	13,583	1,33,342	61,972	4,81,729	6,91,117
1974-75	768	2,625	1,91,397	8,110	5,51,796	7,54,696
1975-76	1,272	4,163	1,97,948	21,531	9,54,729	11,79,643
1976-77	1,671	11,198	1,72,646	60,719	10,67,605	13,13,839

STATEMENT II (b)
Expenditure (in Rs), Municipal Board, Tilhar

Reference Page No. 209

Year	General administra- tion and collection charges	Public safety	Public health and convenience	Education	Contribution	Miscella- neous	Other sources	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1967-68	67,435	24,449	72,554	1,22,519	2,700	4,778	48,944	3,42,779
1968-69	78,949	26,924	75,809	1,05,269	2,700	4,990	10,658	3,95,299
1969-70	79,605	29,945	84,138	1,49,768	2,700	27,246	41,229	4,14,631
1970-71	74,213	26,672	93,450	1,44,391	2,700	6,216	3,30,168	6,77,810
1971-72	87,398	32,008	1,03,307	1,71,374	150	9,987	69,403	4,73,627
1972-73	1,07,129	48,003	1,38,449	1,23,540	..	15,243	2,60,119	6,92,483
1973-74	1,31,184	30,631	1,83,687	17,465	2,79,897	6,42,864
1974-75	1,86,660	42,614	3,01,751	12,086	2,01,075	7,44,186
1975-76	1,86,168	40,911	2,57,126	14,389	6,52,519	11,51,113
1976-77	2,21,640	88,338	4,11,072	19,757	6,24,803	13,65,610

STATEMENT III (a)
Receipts (in Rs), Municipal Board, Jalalabad

Reference Page No. 210

Year	Municipal rates and taxes	Revenue derived from municipal property etc. other than taxes	Grants and contributions	Other sources	Total receipts
1	2	3	4	5	6
1967-68	41,222	—	—	63,004	1,04,226
1968-69	43,847	3,714	—	54,419	1,06,980
1969-70	45,362	1,631	—	72,035	1,19,028
1970-71	75,040	2,594	10,499	75,845	1,63,796
1971-72	1,54,516	2,609	12,360	62,863	2,32,348
1972-73	1,13,318	2,309	41,886	72,571	2,30,084
1973-74	1,22,151	1,792	33,308	97,572	2,54,823
1974-75	1,21,112	2,830	60,604	1,72,839	3,57,385
1975-76	1,47,738	2,337	60,735	1,26,888	3,37,698
1976-77	1,60,065	4,679	19,018	2,18,819	4,02,581

STATEMENT III (b)
Expenditure (in Rs), Municipal Board, Jalalabad

Reference Page No. 210

Year	General adminis- tration and col- lection charges	Public works	Public health and convenience	Miscellaneous	Other sources	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1967-68	23,154	27,410	39,056	27,125	6,007	1,22,752
1968-69	24,568	58,931	40,225	10,126	4,200	1,38,050
1969-70	22,806	41,670	43,878	4,166	3,286	1,15,806
1970-71	19,655	35,986	44,292	29,488	4,686	1,34,107
1971-72	38,308	59,468	65,380	14,425	4,354	1,81,945
1972-73	36,985	25,347	93,846	9,722	5,635	1,71,535
1973-74	40,748	1,63,000	70,135	56,875	5,135	3,35,893
1974-75	73,641	37,146	1,56,667	25,337	16,788	3,09,579
1975-76	1,12,561	25,004	1,62,295	33,315	28,421	3,64,627
1976-77	94,388	28,218	1,64,301	1,27,782	12,691	4,27,380

STATEMENT IV
Receipts and Expenditure, Notified Area, Rosa

Reference Page No. 210

Year	Receipts (in rupees)				Expenditure (in rupees)					
	Government grants	Receipts from taxes	Other sources	Total receipts	General ad- ministration and collec- tion charges	Public health	Public works	Other sources	Total expenditure	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1968-69	..	1,423	..	1,423	326	326	
1969-70	..	1,297	..	1,297	1,237	1,237	
1970-71	..	1,517	..	1,517	559	559	
1971-72	..	5,692	..	5,692	3,490	3,490	
1972-73	..	7,103	..	7,103	4,511	4,511	
1973-74	..	7,486	..	7,486	3,671	3,671	
1975-76	..	3,549	..	3,549	3,500	3,500	
1976-77	..	5,776	..	5,776	2,675	2,675	
1977-78	..	5,384	..	5,384	1,442	1,442	

STATEMENT V
Receipts and Expenditure, Town Area, Powangan

Reference Page No. 211

Year	Receipts (in rupees)				Expenditure (in rupees)					
	Government grants	Receipts from taxes	Other sources	Total receipts	General administration and collection charges	Public health	Public works	Other sources	Total expenditure	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1969-70	—	49,754	10,325	60,079	84,083	27,336	4,424	7,854	1,23,697	
1970-71	7,500	80,423	29,342	1,17,270	27,203	31,314	18,154	3,777	80,448	
1971-72	5,000	1,15,535	23,735	1,44,270	32,047	36,766	6,475	27,987	1,03,275	
1972-73	10,000	1,14,617	86,752	2,11,369	36,659	64,215	50,528	4,410	1,55,812	
1973-74	10,000	1,19,272	39,194	1,68,466	39,297	46,485	54,114	4,806	1,44,702	
1974-75	10,000	1,05,199	1,15,905	2,31,104	1,00,946	1,09,643	43,547	2,009	2,56,144	
1975-76	..	78,701	2,10,035	2,88,735	61,316	72,302	..	2,550	1,36,168	
1976-77	..	75,475	73,873	1,49,348	75,145	1,08,835	41,427	13,438	2,38,845	
1977-78	..	2,01,718	60,831	2,72,549	78,487	1,12,876	45,193	5,920	2,42,476	

STATEMENT VI
Receipts and Expenditure, Town Area, Katra

Reference Page No. 211

Year	Receipts (in rupees)			Expenditure (in rupees)			
	Government grants	Other sources	Total receipts	General administration and collection charges	Public works	Other sources	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1967-68	..	86,241	86,241	26,18	1,142	19,673	46,997
1968-69	..	84,596	84,596	32,063	..	25,977	58,040
1969-70	..	1,01,280	1,01,280	32,696	27,849	29,125	89,670
1970-71	9,525	1,554	1,01,079	33,634	65,536	1,05,405	2,04,575
1971-72	10,303	98,757	1,09,065	39,129	4,651	57,630	1,01,410
1972-73	25,266	2,55,614	2,80,880	46,844	18,471	6,951	1,31,266
1973-74	14,655	3,95,443	4,10,098	51,443	1,07,438	1,17,243	2,76,124
1974-75	81,543	3,11,098	3,92,641	1,29,083	1,25,748	2,76,325	5,30,156
1975-76	67,727	2,03,981	2,71,708	74,343	58,661	1,17,986	2,50,990
1976-77	69,463	1,08,431	1,77,894	65,745	22,833	71,987	1,60,563

STATEMENT VII (a)

Receipts (in Rs), Zila Parishad

Reference Page No. 213

Year	Government grants	Education	Medical and Public Health	Cattle pounds	Fairs and exhibitions	Other sources	Total receipts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1967-68	37,81,523	1,65,615	3,115	40,144	52,525	1,18,240	41,61,162
1968-69	42,14,881	1,88,169	4,405	77,538	85,336	1,15,242	46,85,573
1969-70	52,72,731	1,93,091	5,156	84,237	61,270	1,28,893	57,45,378
1970-71	54,05,636	2,11,481	8,302	70,155	71,362	1,56,658	59,23,594
1971-72	98,81,759	1,99,642	9,725	74,840	54,522	3,23,743	1,05,44,231
1972-73	38,90,850	98,633	6,357	69,669	76,043	1,60,089	43,01,541
1973-74	13,20,119	27,612	5,798	64,801	76,525	3,94,570	18,89,416
1974-75	4,82,292	25,320	3,053	68,881	68,203	4,58,235	11,05,974
1975-76	7,10,821	16,436	3,277	52,545	76,015	5,01,671	13,60,765
1976-77	5,65,690	..	2,644	52,348	93,245	4,59,786	11,73,713

STATEMENT VII (b)

Expenditure (in Rs), Zila Parishad

Reference Page No. 213

Year	General administration and collection charges	Education	Medical and public health	Public works	Fairs and exhibition	Other sources	Total expenditure
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1967-68	89,790	34,49,265	1,14,309	2,74,101	59,476	1,56,710	41,43,651
1968-69	97,502	42,28,542	1,29,558	2,35,973	62,370	1,86,870	49,44,815
1969-70	1,01,134	46,24,368	1,38,081	1,74,108	54,272	1,91,990	52,83,953
1970-71	83,378	50,49,844	1,54,950	78,601	41,181	1,23,923	55,32,377
1971-72	82,409	52,77,085	1,21,791	6,54,524	33,856	1,27,881	62,97,546
1972-73	98,674	30,07,720	1,48,087	33,58,964	42,818	2,47,441	69,04,704
1973-74	1,46,278	92,278	1,17,445	25,25,490	44,992	3,55,969	32,82,452
1974-75	2,77,803	1,37,489	89,795	5,84,200	47,368	3,95,504	15,33,159
1975-76	2,57,200	1,00,000	94,817	3,29,547	47,684	2,87,407	11,16,655
1976-77	2,50,921	12,607	94,371	3,11,347	49,277	1,67,897	8,86,420

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Though no direct references to the state of education in this region in ancient times could be found, yet it may safely be assumed that the mode of teaching that was prevalent in other parts of the country also obtained in this district. In those days child's education began at home and he was subsequently sent to the *gurukulas* and *ashramas* to receive lessons under the guidance of learned sages, scholars and gurus. Studentship began with the *upanayana* or initiation ceremony when a student had to perform a number of religious rites, after which he was directed to proceed to the guru's place. The pupil was allowed to pursue the subjects of his own choice accompanied by special teaching of the *Vedas* and traditional branches of learning. The boys had first to learn the alphabets and elementary arithmetic (*ganita* or calculation). The method of teaching was oral. In addition to it there were also arrangements for vocational training. Such of the pupils as were desirous received training in diverse arts and crafts too for occupational and professional purposes. The training was given by the artisans at their houses. During the Buddhist period the education centred round monasteries and was in the hands of the monks.¹

After the 12th century when Muslims settled down in these parts, they set up their own *maktabs* (schools) in which education was imparted according to the Islamic concepts.

For many years even after the establishment of British rule, *maktabs* and *pathshalas* were the only schools which existed though they received no official support and had a very precarious existence. Their scope was limited to the imparting of the rudiments of reading, writing, book-keeping and arithmetic or else to elementary instructions in the Sanskrit and Arabic or Persian scriptures. In 1847 an educational census was conducted and it then appeared that there were 287 such schools in the district, and that more than one-third of

1. Mookerji R. K.: *Ancient Indian Education, Brahmanical and Buddhist* (Delhi, 1960), p. 394

these were of less than two years' standing. In 1850, Shahjahanpur was selected as one of the eight experimental districts in which a uniform system of general control of village schools was sanctioned. In May of that year *tahsili* schools were established at the headquarters of the four tahsils and also at Khutar, then a separate *peshkari*; and this was followed by the opening of *halqabandi* schools in all tahsils in May 1854. By 1856-57 there were 123 such schools in addition to the five middle schools and 309 indigenous schools with a total attendance of 6,884 students. There was also an Anglo-vernacular school at Shahjahanpur, started a year earlier. Progress of education was very much cut short during the freedom struggle of 1857, and the work had to be started afresh thereafter. The Anglo-vernacular school was reopened in April 1858 and the others followed shortly afterwards. The number of *tahsili* schools remained unchanged, but constant additions were made to the number of the *halqabandi* schools. By 1866-67 the various institutions in the district comprised the Anglo-vernacular school (then styled the zila school), the five *tahsili* schools, 106 *halqabandi* and 62 indigenous schools, with an aggregate attendance of 5,062 students. There were also 21 girls' schools, the first having been started in 1862. In 1876 there were 275 students in the middle schools, 3,221 in 105 *halqabandi* schools and 1,169 in 64 indigenous schools. These figures do not include the figures of pupils receiving education in schools run by the Christian missionaries, nor of the municipal schools at Shahjahanpur proper, started in 1872. The transfer of the schools to the district board after the constitution of that body in 1884 had at first little effect on numbers of pupils getting education but gradually the number rose, the process being accelerated by the adoption of the system of grants-in-aid to indigenous village schools.

The statement below gives the number of schools in the district in 1910-11, 1920-21 and 1930-31 :

Year	Primary			Other schools		
	Number of schools	Number of students		Number of schools	Number of students	
		Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls
1910-11	206	7,807	1,096	11	1,539	142
1920-21	431	19,283	582	32	2,195	203
1930-31	962	37,992	4,430	33	3,855	—

During the post-Independence period there has been considerable expansion of education in the district. An idea may be had regarding

the number of institutions and students on rolls in 1956-57 and 1960-61 from the following statement :

Type of institution	1956-57		1960-61	
	Number of institutions	Number of pupils	Number of institutions	Number of pupils
University and degree colleges	1	577	1	906
Intermediate and higher secondary schools	15	6,213	16	7,317
Junior high schools	60	7,286	73	8,075
Training schools	1	90	2	212
Other schools	684	43,871	850	56,859

GROWTH OF LITERACY

The statistics of literacy or ability to read and write, compiled at each census from 1881 onwards, to some extent illustrate the progress of education in this district. The proportion of literate males rose from 3.7 per cent in 1881 to 4 per cent in 1891 and to 4.41 per cent ten years later. Female education had made more rapid progress, rising from .08 to .13 per cent in 1891 and to .23 per cent at the enumeration of 1901.

The percentages of male and female literacy in the district in subsequent decades were as under:

Year	Percentage of literacy	
	Male	Female
1921	5.4	0.8
1931	6.0	1.1
1951	10.8	2.7

The subsequent decade recorded further improvement in literacy in the district. At the census of 1961 the percentages of literacy among male and female population had risen to 19.4 and 5.8 respectively, the percentage of literacy to the total population being 13.2 as against the State average of 17.7. At the census of 1971 the percentage of literates among males had risen to 24.09 among female

to 8.31 and of the total population to 17.09 against the State average of 21.70.

EDUCATION OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES

Particular emphasis is now laid on the education of the people belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes. Students belonging to these castes are provided incentives like exemption from tuition fees, stipends, scholarships and financial assistance for the purchase of books and stationery. Relaxation in the upper age-limit for admission to the educational and technical institutions is also allowed. The number of students of these classes receiving education in various institutions in the district in 1977-78 was as follows:

Educational institutions	Scheduled Castes		Other Backward Classes	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Higher secondary	2,030	111	1,257	88
Graduation	205	6	2	—
Technical education	109	23	3	2

GENERAL EDUCATION

Education according to the present set-up starts with the pre-junior Basic commonly called nursery stage and ends with the university or with vocational training. The following statement gives the number of various kinds of institutions and students on rolls in 1977-78 :

Institutions	Number of schools	Number of teachers	Number of students
Pre-Junior Basic	8	77	2,442
Junior Basic	1,188	2,877	1,52,769
Senior Basic	154	662	19,954
Higher secondary	37	800	23,159

Pre-junior Basic Stage

Pre-junior Basic education, which is imparted to children roughly up to the age of 6 years, is of recent growth in the district.

During 1977-78, there were 8 such schools in the district—5 at Shah-jahanpur 2 at Tilhar and one at Rosa.

Junior and Senior Basic Stage

Basic education (which is also known as the Wardha scheme of education) owes its origin to Mahatma Gandhi. With certain modifications it was adopted by the State Government in 1939. In the district, as elsewhere in the State, Basic education consists of a course of education extending over 8 years—the junior Basic schools covering classes I to V and the senior Basic schools covering classes VI to VIII.

With a view to ensure better standard of education and administrative efficiency, the institutions of Basic education have been provincialised since July, 1972, after the passing of the U. P. Basic Shiksha Adhiniyam in that year. The Basic schools have accordingly been transferred from the management of the local bodies to the Basic Shiksha Samiti in the district. Control at the State level is vested in the Basic Shiksha Parishad, at the district level in the Zila Shiksha Samiti and at the village level in the Gaon Shiksha Samiti. The district Basic Shiksha Adhikari supervises and controls the Basic educational set-up in the district. At the State level the director of education, Allahabad assisted by an additional director (Basic-education) supervises and controls the entire set-up of the Basic education in the State. The following statement gives the number of Basic schools and students in 1977-78 in the district :

Type of institution	Number of schools		Number of students	
	For boys	For girls	Boys	Girls
Junior Basic	970	218	81,845	45,478
Senior Basic	105	49	14,754	2,735

Re-orientation Scheme

The re-orientation scheme which aimed at training students in agriculture by inculcating in them a sense of dignity of labour and also improving the finances of educational institutions, was introduced in the district in 1954. By 1977-78, 22 educational institutions of the district with farm lands measuring 164 hectares had been brought under the scheme for imparting instructions in agriculture as a compulsory subject by teachers especially trained in agriculture, rural economics and veterinary science.

Secondary Education

Secondary education starts after the senior Basic stage and goes up to class XII. In the district it is supervised by the district inspector of schools. To encourage female education, the State Government has made girls' education up to the high school stage (Class X) free, since January 1, 1965. The district had 17,643 boys and 7,386 girls on rolls in 37 higher secondary schools during 1977-78. These institutions, except for a few run by the government, are under private management and receive financial aid from the government.

Statement I at the end of the chapter gives the number of junior and senior Basic schools and higher secondary schools with number of students on rolls in them for the ten years ending 1977-78.

Higher Education

There are two degree colleges at Shahjahanpur. The Gandhi Faizam Degree College, Shahjahanpur affiliated to the Rohilkhand University, Bareilly, trace its origin in the year 1947 and offers facilities for education in arts and science at the degree level.

The Swami Shukdevanand Degree College, Shahjahanpur was established in 1964 and offers education in arts and science subjects. It is also affiliated to the Rohilkhand University, Bareilly.

Some particulars of higher education from 1968-69 to 1977-78 are given in Statement II appended at the end of the chapter.

Professional and Technical Education

Professional and technical education is provided by a few institutions in the district, mostly for teachers, mechanics and technicians. There are two government normal schools for boys and one for girls in the district. The trainees are awarded certificates after successful completion of training which is spread over a period of two years. The total enrolment in these institutions in 1977-78 was 142 students.

Another institution imparting professional and technical education in the district is the industrial training institute, Rosa. It is run by the directorate of training and employment, U. P. and imparts training in various trades such as electrical works, fitter, turner, electrical and gas welding, etc. The duration of training is from one to two years. The trainees are awarded a national trade certificate on successful completion of training. The total enrolment in 1977-78 was 262 students.

ORIENTAL EDUCATION

Sanskrit

By the beginning of the present century many old institutions of oriental learning were closed, as endowments meant for them were gradually diverted to running high schools where the teaching of Sanskrit was not compulsory. In 1977-78 there were seven Sanskrit *pathshalas* in the district affiliated to the Sampurnanand Sanskrit Vishvavidyalaya, Varanasi, imparting instructions in Sanskrit.

Arabic and Persian

During 1977-78, there were three Arabic and Persian institutions in the district running elementary classes in accordance with the syllabus of the Board of Arabic and Persian Examinations, Uttar Pradesh.

The statement below gives relevant particulars about Sanskrit *pathshalas* and Arabic *madrasas* for the year 1977-78 :

Name of institutions	Number of teachers	Number of students	Year of foundation	Name of examination
Sanskrit :				
Sri Anant Vigyan Mathabhrat Shakti Mahavidyalaya, Shahjahanpur	4	40	1929	Prathma, Ma- dhyama, and Shastri
Parusam Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Jalalabad	9	167	1937	Do.
Sri Shivashanker Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Shahjahanpur	2	29	1940	Do.
Srimati Savitri Devi Dharmik Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Tilhar	4	85	1940	Do.
Sri Devi Sampad Adarsh Brahmacharya Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Shahjahanpur	9	95	1942	Do.
Gurukula Mahavidyalaya, Rudrapur	8	70	1950	Do.
Sri Bharti Sanskrit Vidyalaya, Gurgawan	4	40	1952	Do.
Arabic and Persian :				
Madrasa Ainul Ilm, Shahjahanpur	3	155	1994	Munshi, Kamil, Fazil, and Alim
Madrasa Fza' Aam, Shjehanpu	9	230	1922	Do.
Madrasa Deenayat Taloomul Quraan, Tilhar	3	120	1940	Do.

Adult Education

For spreading literary and rudimentary education in basic disciplines, adult schools are run on a voluntary basis in the development blocks. Teachers of Basic schools are appointed to work in these institutions and they are paid for this additional part-time job. The duration of the course is one year. The enrolment in these schools was 2,180 in the district in 1977-78.

Physical Education

In the district, as elsewhere in the State, physical training is compulsory in all educational institutions up to the senior Basic stage. Games and sports meets are also organised both in urban as well as rural areas. Mass physical exercises and displays are main features of the regional sports and games meets every year. In a number of higher secondary institutions of the district, physical training under the auspices of the National Cadet Corps and the Bharat Scouts and Guides Association is also given.

Fine Arts

The strip of high land on which the town of Shahjahanpur stands was once the site of an old fort belonging to the Gujar rulers. In and around the town of Shahjahanpur there are several mosques and tombs of Muslim saints. All of them follow the traditional concepts of Muslim architecture, i.e. domes and minarets. Embodying the European domes and minarets architecture are the handsome buildings of the American missionary, the Roman Catholic chapel and the Protestant churches—the last being the scene of the first outburst of freedom struggle in this district.

Folk-songs

The folk-songs related with various regions that are commonly sung in the villages are the Holi or Phaag in the spring, the rainy season songs and the famous *Alha* which is also generally sung or recited during the monsoon. Women have their own songs for special occasions such as Sohar (sung on the occasion of the birth of the child), Suhag or Bana Bani songs (marriage songs) and those sung at festivals connected with the worship of the goddesses Durga and Devimaat. Bhajans (devotional songs) sung solo or in chorus to the accompaniment of musical instruments are quite popular and liked by the people. *Nautankis* (open air dramatic performances) and plays drawn from the epics, mythology and legends like the *Ramayana*, the *Mahabharata*,

Puranas, etc., are also a special feature and they attract large gatherings particularly in the villages. *Mushairas* and *kavi sammelans* (poetical gatherings at which Urdu and Hindi poems are recited), are popular in the towns. The *qawwali* programmes are also quite frequent and popular.

Libraries and Reading Rooms

Of the very few libraries functioning in the district, the oldest, the Darul Mutala Association Library was founded at Shahjahanpur in 1936, for raising the level of literary taste among the people. It had a collection of 3,092 books in 1977-78. Started in 1948 Gandhi Pustakalaya, Shahjahanpur had a total collection of 12,000 books during the same year. The Shaheed Library at the district headquarters was established in 1960 and in the year 1977-78, it had a collection of 3,250 books. The schools and colleges in the district have their own libraries. The development blocks cater to the need of the people of the rural areas in this behalf by establishing information centres and reading rooms, arranging the facility of radio sets under the auspices of the *gaon* panchayats.

MEN OF LETTERS

The record of indigenous literature is somewhat meagre owing to the fact that no research has been carried out for the discovery of local literary genius in the district in the past. In the eighteenth century a bard named Chandan Rai of Nahil came to the court of the Gaur raja of Powayan. He composed several poems, the most celebrated being the *Kesri Prakash*. His grandson was Makrand Rai, who was born in 1823 and wrote a much admired work the *Harya Ras*. Another resident of this district was Man Bhawan of Mundia, who was the author of several Hindi works, including the *Sringar Ratnavali*, though this is sometimes attributed to one of his pupils.

Nawab Muhabbat Khan of Shahjahanpur, the son of Nawab Faiz Ata Khan, wrote a history of India named the *Akhbar-i-Muhabbat*, a comprehensive work of merit. Another Persian history styled the *Shahjahanpurnama* or the *Anhar-ul-bahr* was written by an unknown Pathan of Shahjahanpur in 1839. The author's name does not appear, but he states that his brother was Muhammad Khan, a poet who wrote under the pseudonym 'Ahmad'.

STATEMENT I

General Education

Reference Page No. 232

Year	Junior Basic						Senior Basic						Higher Secondary					
	Schools			Students			Schools			Students			Schools			Students		
	Boys		Girls	Boys		Girls	Boys		Girls	Boys		Girls	Boys		Girls	Boys		Girls
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13						
1966-69	951	195	78,891	21,005	88	33	11,848	3,806	24	9	13,489	5,532						
1969-70	934	189	85,581	45,586	86	34	12,602	2,917	22	9	13,429	6,211						
970-71	950	204	88,878	50,850	89	37	12,505	2,919	25	10	14,231	6,533						
1971-72	950	204	92,085	53,781	89	37	12,808	3,199	25	10	14,323	6,614						
1972-73	950	204	92,517	54,157	89	37	13,069	3,436	25	10	14,322	6,919						
1973-74	950	204	93,782	55,643	89	37	13,246	3,722	25	10	15,061	6,990						
1974-75	950	210	93,940	55,832	92	45	13,964	3,941	26	10	15,120	6,994						
1975-76	950	210	94,731	56,038	92	45	14,862	4,092	26	10	15,234	7,025						
1976-77	971	217	80,629	44,893	103	51	14,367	2,660	27	10	17,453	7,279						
1977-78	970	218	81,845	45,478	105	49	14,754	2,735	27	10	17,643	7,386						

STATEMENT II
Higher Education

Reference Page No. 232

Year	Number of degree colleges	Number of students	
		Boys	Girls
1	2	3	4
1968-69	2	956	106
1969-70	2	854	86
1970-71	2	879	121
1971-72	2	952	131
1972-73	2	1,082	147
1973-74	2	854	148
1974-75	2	771	145
1975-76	2	689	137
1976-77	2	914	178
1977-78	2	1,210	158

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Medical Facilities in Early Times

No direct reference is available which could throw light on the medical facilities and systems of medicine prevailing in early times in the district, but it is reasonable to surmise that the system that prevailed in the country also obtained in this area. The physician of early times, who practised the indigenous system of medicine, was usually very successful, but there were many quacks as well and the *ojhas* (sorcerers) who also had considerable influence in the rural areas of the district. Disease was often and in even today attributed by many people in and outside the district to sins, crimes, vices and disobedience of natural and religious laws, the cures prescribed being the offering of prayers (as to Shitla, the Goddess who unleashes small-pox when angry), fasting, animal sacrifice and various other modes invocation of deities and supernatural powers, with the help of the local *ojhas*.

Ayurveda (the science of life and longevity and one of the earliest known system of medicine) was practised from very early times in the district as a pious duty and no fee was charged for treating the ailing persons, the *Ayurvedic* physicians being known as *vaids*. They used herbal, mineral and other kinds of medicines and some of them were also skilled surgeons. People in affluent circumstances and of charitable disposition in the society extended financial help to them and looked after their material needs. The people also had an awareness of personal hygiene and their religious customs enjoined on them observance of personal cleanliness, taking of daily bath, washing of hands and feet before meals and the like. The habitations afflicted with infectious diseases were disinfected by fumigation by burning certain herbal preparations like *dhoop* and *loban* and leaves of certain medicinal trees such as neem (*Azadirachta indica*). The clothes of persons suffering from such afflictions were burnt and the habitations and surroundings were washed and cleaned often with the help of cow dung.

Near about the thirteenth century, when the Muslims settled down in these parts, they brought with them the *Unani* and *Tibbi* systems of medicine. The practitioners of these systems were called hakims. Their activities generally remained confined to the towns and to the families of the ruling elite and affluent Muslims. In those days an indigenous type of surgery was also practised by *janahas*, who were more or less quacks. With the coming of the Europeans, and particularly the British, in the country around the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the stage was set for the spread of the allopathic or the western system of medicine which steadily and fastly gained popularity mainly because of the patronage by the new foreign rulers and their cohorts.

In 1826, an allopathic dispensary was opened at Shahjahanpur and for many years it was the only institution of the kind in the district. After 1857 such dispensaries were opened at Katra and Khutar, and more of them were subsequently added at Jalalabad in 1868, Tilhar in 1873 and Powayan in 1880. In 1887 one such private dispensary was established at Paraur. In 1892 female ward known as the Dufferin hospital was added to the dispensary at Shahjahanpur. There was a hospital in the police lines and a hospital in the local jail. These dispensaries and hospitals prescribed only allopathic medicines dispensed by physicians under the general supervision of the civil surgeon.

After the achievement of Independence in 1947, particularly in the sixties and seventies of the present century, there was a spurt in the number of allopathic dispensaries, health centres and hospital in the district. The government also gave due importance to the *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* systems and dispensaries of these systems were also opened in the district.

There were four allopathic hospitals and 16 dispensaries, three homoeopathic and seven *Ayurvedic* and three *Unani* dispensaries in the district in 1977.

Vital Statistics

Registration of deaths has been in practice since 1865 or soon thereafter, but in early stages the system adopted was very defective and no reliability can be placed on the figures. A new system involving closer scrutiny of the registers and strict supervision of the work was introduced in the year 1872, but it took some time before it be-

came a regular, routine and official affair. The average of annual deaths during the five years ending with 1880 was 38,343 giving a mean death-rate of 40.9 per mille. The ensuing decade 1881 to 1890—showed a considerable improvement, the average annual number of deaths falling to 31,062 with a mean rate of 36.25 per mille. In the next ten years still better results were noticeable, in spite of the heavy mortality caused by several abnormally wet seasons, the average rate being 35.33 per mille. Between 1900 and 1920, the worst year was 1918, when the average deaths per thousand were 109.67. This was because of severe outbreak of fever and cholera in that year. The mean decennial birth-rate and death-rate per thousand per year in the district during the next three decades are given below :

Decades	Birth-rate	Death-rate
1921—30	42.3	32.6
1931—40	39.2	28.7
1941—50	30.3	21.3

Generally, the birth-rate has been ahead of the death-rate and the death-rate has shown a marked tendency to fall particularly since the Independence mainly on account of better sanitary and health measures and medical facilities provided by the government and steps taken for the eradication of epidemics like plague, cholera and small-pox. Family planning consciousness among the people, particularly among the educated persons, has also to some extent contributed to the fall in the birth-rate. The following statement provides a glimpse of the birth and death-rates per thousand people in the district during the three years ending with 1969 :

Year	Birth-rate	Death-rate
1967	15.3	9.7
1968	15.3	9.8
1969	21.1	8.4

Infant Mortality

Mortality among children below one year of age has always been very high in the district mainly due to lack of adequate maternity and child welfare services. In the fifties of the present century the maximum infant mortality was 3,443 in 1951, while the minimum was 910 in 1957. The position has much improved in recent years, in as much as that the infant mortality has gone down to only 104 in 1976.

DISEASES COMMON TO DISTRICT

The diseases which accounted for a large number of deaths in the district during the three decades ending 1940 were fevers of all types; cholera, respiratory disorders, diarrhoea and dysentery. There has, however, been a marked decline in their incidence during recent years. It has been made possible on account of steps taken and measures adopted by the government mainly through widespread extension of medical and health services and facilities in the far off and distant corners of the rural areas of the district.

Fever—Fever (which includes malaria, typhoid, influenza and other ailments that are accompanied by a large number of unidentified and undiagnosed symptoms marked by great bodily heat and quickening of the pulse) was responsible for a large number of deaths in the district.

The average death-rate per mille, attributable to fever alone was 24.8 from 1881 to 1890 and during the following decade it rose to 27.2 per thousand. In the first decade of the present century the worst epidemic (fever) occurred in 1908 which took a toll of 49,331 lives. This trend continued with some variations in the following two decades also and the highest deaths were 96,427 in 1918 and 35,409 in 1921.

Between 1941 and 1950, the highest number of deaths from fever was 21,619 in 1941 and the lowest 17,773 in 1950. Between 1951 and 1960 the maximum number of deaths from fever came down to 9,751 in 1951 and the minimum of 6,470 in 1957. Deaths from fever have declined in recent years, owing to the efforts made by the government in this direction. The following statement gives the number of deaths caused by fever in the district in 1973 and 1974 :

Year	No. of deaths
1973	605
1974	2,502

Diarrhoea and Dysentery—These diseases occur in the form of bowl and stomach ailments. The incidence is attributed mostly to insanitary conditions and unsatisfactory arrangements of drinking water. Sometimes dysentery is the result of malarial fever also.

In the closing years of the last century the highest number of deaths from bowel complaints was 1,555 in 1894 and the lowest 166 in 1898. During the period 1901 to 1910, the highest mortality was 343 in 1907 and in the second decade of this century 218 in 1920. In the third decade the maximum number of deaths was 313 in 1933. In the forties the maximum was 250 in 1941 and the minimum 155 in 1948 and in the fifties the highest figure of mortality was 511 in 1951 and the lowest 170 in 1959. The total number of deaths due to bowel disorders was only 52 in 1974. The incidence of these diseases in the district has decreased as a result of improvements in sanitary arrangements, disinfecting and cleaning of wells and better drinking water facilities.

Respiratory Diseases—Earlier diseases such as pneumonia, pleurisy and bronchitis were included in the category of fever, but now they form separate class of diseases. They are not immediate cause of death, but they often result in permanent or temporary infirmity and in some cases even premature death. The following statement shows the number of deaths on account of respiratory disorders in recent years :

Year	No. of deaths
1973	168
1974	287

Epidemics

Epidemics of cholera, plague and smallpox when they occur usually account for a higher incidence of deaths. One of the main functions of the municipal boards is to take timely steps to control these epidemics and the medical officers of these institutions assisted by the health and sanitary staff, are responsible for taking suitable steps to check the spread of these epidemics and to take preventive, curative and ameliorative measures when they break out. All the deputy chief medical officers assisted by qualified and trained persons are responsible for taking necessary steps to prevent and control epidemics in the rural areas under their charge. The district magistrate is empowered under the Epidemic Diseases Act, 1897, to adopt measures to check the spread of epidemics in the district, to remove patients to hospitals, to disinfect places, to close schools and colleges and to order evacuation of infected houses and localities. Cases of cholera, plague and smallpox are reported to the respective deputy chief medical officers by the *pradhans* (presidents) or *up pradhans* (vice-presidents) of the *gaon sabhas*. Since 1951 the responsibility of reporting the occurrence of the disease has become obligatory on the head of the household also.

Cholera—Cholera is not very common in the district. The disease mostly occurs in a single annual wave which usually appears in March-April, suddenly increases in May and reaches its peak in June. Fairs and festivals are usually the occasions when this disease erupts in virulent form.

Severe epidemic of cholera in the district occurred in 1880 when it took a toll of 5,738 lives. This was eclipsed, however, in 1890, when the mortality reached the unusual figure of 7,046 persons. It again visited the district in 1901 and 1908 when respectively 2,014 and 4,297 fatal cases were reported. Between 1909 and 1940, it occurred in epidemic form twice in 1915 and 1929 when the number of deaths reported was 5,605 and 2,802 respectively. Between 1941 and 1950 the maximum figure was 1,092 in 1949, while the minimum was 72 in 1950. Subsequent visitations of cholera were not so severe. The incidence decreased due to preventive measures such as anti-cholera inoculation, cleaning and disinfection of wells and other sanitary and precautionary measures.

Plague—Plague first appeared in the district in 1902 claiming only one life, while in 1907 and 1911 it appeared in an epidemic

form claiming 2,000 and 3,997 lives respectively. In later years it subsided as in certain years of the decade 1921-30, it claimed less than 7 lives and finally disappeared from the district in the fifties of this century. Inoculation and destruction of rats were the principal preventive measures taken in the district to eradicate this scourge.

Smallpox—Much more encouraging progress has been achieved with regard to smallpox. There was a very extensive outbreak, accounting for 3,835 deaths, during the famine year of 1883, which was the worst ever known and of 1897 another season of famine, when the mortality from this cause accounted for 2,705. In early days direct inoculation was commonly practised and it was long before it was supplemented by vaccination. In recent years on account of active sustained efforts on the part of the government the incidence of the disease has declined very considerably particularly during the latter part of the present century. For the eradication of smallpox from the country the smallpox eradication programme was launched on October 2, 1962.

Intensive Active Search and Containment Campaign—With the assistance of Government of India and the World Health Organisation, an 'intensive active search and containment campaign' was launched in 1973. Regular searches were conducted, house to house, village to village and in every town and market to determine active foci of smallpox which were subsequently contained by total vaccination in the affected areas. The scheme has been successful in eradicating the disease and since 1974 no case has been reported in the district. The International Commission for Smallpox Eradication visited the State in April, 1977 and declared the disease as having been eradicated. Vigilance is still being maintained and primary vaccinations of the newly born and those not previously vaccinated is being carried out regularly.

Other Diseases—Leprosy, tuberculosis, cancer, diphtheria, bronchitis, gastro-enteritis, enlarged spleen and pneumonia are among the other diseases responsible for deaths in the district. Recourse is taken to giving mass B. C. G. vaccinations and to render special curative treatment in the T. B. clinic, Shahjahanpur in order to combat the tuberculosis menace. Leprosy is not common in the district. Blindness appears to be on the decrease, the number of persons afflicted having declined in the last two decades, a result which is

due in part to the comparative immunity in the district from small-pox and the treatment provided by the Sitapur eye hospital, branch, Shahjahanpur and the eye clinic, factory estate, Shahjahanpur.

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION

Organisational Set-up

The medical and public health departments in the State were amalgamated in 1948 and a directorate of medical and health services was created which controlled the allopathic, the *Ayurvedic* and the *Unani* systems of medicine. In July 1961, a separate directorate was created for the effective supervision and encouragement of the *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* systems of medicine.

Formerly the civil surgeon and the district medical officer of health, headed the medical and public health organisations respectively in the district. In July 1973, the departments of medical and public health were reorganised in the State, the posts of the civil surgeon and the district medical officer of health were abolished and instead a chief medical officer was appointed in the district. He heads the entire medical, public health and family welfare set-up in the district. He is assisted by three deputy chief medical officers.

The municipal officer of health is responsible for public health activities within the municipal area. The rural area has been apportioned between the three deputy chief medical officers for supervising the entire medical health and family welfare work and the primary health centres. Special programmes like drives against malaria, filaria, etc., are looked after by separate officers who are directly responsible to their respective programme officers at the State level.

Hospitals

The following statement gives some details about the government hospitals in the district in the year 1977 :

Name of hospital	Number of doctors	Number of beds	
		M. le	Female
District hospital, Shahjahanpur	7	59	12
Dufferin hospital, Shahjahanpur	2	—	26
Police hospital, Shahjahanpur	1	27	—
Jail hospital, Shahjahanpur	1	16	—

Dispensaries

The following statement gives some details of the government alopathic, *Ayurvedic*, *Unani* and homoeopathic dispensaries in the district in the year 1977 :

Name of dispensary	No. of Doctors	Number of beds	
		For males	For females
Allopathic			
Bilandpur Gaddipur	1	2	2
Deokali	1	2	2
Dhaka Ghansham	1	2	2
Khera R th	1	2	2
Kurria Khurd	1	2	2
Lohar Gaon	1	2	2
Madnapur	1	2	2
Paraur	1	2	2
Shahjahanpur (school)	1	—	—
Jalalabad (women)	1	—	6
Ayurvedic			
Chandepur	1	—	—
Katoli Khandhar	1	—	—
Kurianala	1	—	—
Manjhola	1	—	—
Nahil	1	—	—
Sohremau	1	—	—
Zarainpur	1	—	—
Unani			
Bhatpura	1	—	—
Kanth	1	—	—
Khamaria Kalan	1	—	—
Homoeopathic			
Dhakia Ragha	1	—	—
Dhakia Towari	1	—	1
Nabhichi	1	—	—

Primary Health Centres

In order to provide medical facilities and improve health standards of the people in the rural areas, the government has established primary health centres, one each at the headquarters of every development block of the district. There were 14 such centres in 1977. Each centre is manned by a medical officer, who is assisted by a para-medical and health staff consisting of pharmacists, health inspectors, health visitors, smallpox inspectors and supervisors and family welfare workers. Generally each centre has under it an allopathic dispensary and a four-bed ward for the indoor patients, a maternity and child welfare centre at its headquarters and a few sub-maternity centres at different places in the development block area. The following statement gives the location of these centres in the district in 1977 :

Location	Development block in which situated	Tahsil
Jalalabad	Jalalabad	Jalalabad
Rafiabad Kalan	Rafiabad Kalan	Do.
Mirzapur	Mirzapur	Do.
Sindhauli	Sindhauli	Powayan
Powayan	Powayan	Do.
Banda	Banda	Do.
Khutar	Khutar	Do.
Bhawal Khora	Bhawal Khora	Shahjahanpur
Dadraul	Dadraul	Do.
Kant	Kant	Do.
Khudaganj	Khudaganj	Tilhar
Tilhar	Tilhar	Do.
Nigohi	Nigohi	Do.
Jaitipur	Jaitipur	Do.

Maternity and Child Welfare

To check the high incidence of infant mortality due chiefly to the non-availability of proper medical aid and advice and insanitary conditions, a network of maternity and child welfare centres was

established in the district since 1965, through which proper medical aid is provided to infants and expectant mothers. In each of the 14 primary health centres at each of the development block headquarters in the district a maternity and child welfare centre is also attached, where midwives and *dais* render advice and medical aid and also pay domiciliary visits in the villages. Similar facilities are being made available at each of the subcentres (generally located in the interior), three under each of the primary health centres.

Family Welfare

In order to arrest the abnormal growth of population in the district, the family welfare programme was launched in the district in 1961. In 1965 special steps were taken to popularise the concept of the small family through films, placards, posters and personal contacts. The chief medical officer is in charge of the entire family welfare programme in the district since 1973. The programme is implemented through the family welfare centres attached to each of the primary health centres and is supervised by the medical officer in charge of the centre.

The statement given below indicates the achievements made under the family welfare programme in the district from 1974-75 to 1976-77 :

Year	Vasectomy	Tubectomy	Number of loops inserted
1974-75	166	65	1,936
1975-76	235	597	2,459
1976-77	9,634	766	1,897

Vaccination

Formerly people were averse to vaccination against smallpox and medical treatment for it, but gradually people began to realise the advantages of these measures. The vaccination programme has been intensified since 1973, when the national smallpox eradication programme was launched in the district.

The following statement gives the number of persons vaccinated against smallpox between 1975 to 1977 :

Year	Total number of persons vaccinated
1975	1,08,604
1976	1,24,467
1977	1,16,121

National Malaria Eradication Programme

The national malaria eradication programme was taken up in the year 1958-59, under which a unit was established at Shahjahanpur. Under the programme the district has passed through some phases viz., preparatory, attack and consolidation (maintenance). In the last, namely, the maintenance phase, the national malaria eradication programme has become part of the normal health schemes of the district. The incidence of the malaria during the five years ending 1977 is given in the following statement:

Year	Number of blood slides collected	Number of positive reaction cases
1973	99,839	115
1974	1,01,668	227
1975	1,13,316	692
1976	91,236	601
1977	1,37,418	3,091

Prevention of Food and Drug Adulteration

The chief medical officer is the licensing authority for food and drug distribution in the district. All municipal officers of health in the municipalities are responsible for this job in the urban areas.

The following statement gives the number of samples collected, those found adulterated and cases prosecuted during the years from 1975 to 1977 :

Year	Number of samples collected	Number of samples found adulterated	Number of cases launched
1975	341	62	50
1976	295	82	62
1977	1,026	243	166

Shahjahanpur is reputed to be one of the healthy districts in the State owing to the mild nature of the climate and also to its admirable

situation on a high tablel and between the Garra and the Khanaut. Elsewhere the conditions vary. The general health is distinctly good in the upland areas as a whole, but the river valleys and the clay tracts in which waterlogging occurs are less fortunate. Efforts are being made for the supply of potable drinking water in the villages by providing liberal subsidy by the government for the construction of wells and tube-wells and installation of hand pumps in the villages.



CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

LABOUR WELFARE

Since Independence the government has taken up a number of schemes with a view to providing better facilities to the workers and labourers and creating a congenial atmosphere for them to work. The labour welfare programmes aim at providing various benefits to the labourers like reasonable minimum wages, social security like State insurance of the employees, security for the old age, collective bargaining through recognised trade unions, medical and maternity facilities, regulated working hours, payment of bonus for providing incentive, payment of compensation in cases of death and infirmity, measures for lighting, ventilation and safety in the place of work and provision of canteens, recreations, leave and holidays, holiday homes and residential houses.

Labour participation in the management is also encouraged by the government to promote harmonious relations between the employers and the workers.

The district falls in the Bareilly region of the State labour department. At the district level, the labour inspector stationed at the district headquarters ensures the administration and enforcement of the labour laws and implementation of the labour welfare schemes. He maintains liaison between the employees and the employers.

The factory inspector ensures the enforcement of various statutes like the Factories Act, the Payment of Wages Act, etc., and takes necessary action against the erring employers.

There were 27 boilers in the district in 1977 supervised by the inspector of boilers, who has his headquarters at Kanpur.

Labour Welfare Legislations

The Central and State Governments have passed a number of Acts for the benefit of labourers and their families. Some statutes for

the purpose existed before the Independence viz., the Indian Boilers Act, 1923, the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, the Payment of Wages Act, 1936, the U. P. Maternity Benefits Act, 1938 and the Industrial Employment (Standing Order) Act, 1946. These statutes are still in operation having been amended from time to time, to suit the new requirements and the changing pattern of labour welfare schemes. The government have taken active interest in promoting welfare of labourers in the post-Independence period. The Acts passed after 1947, being in force in the district are the U. P. Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Factories Act, 1948, the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961, the U. P. (Industrial Establishments) National Holidays Act, 1961, the U.P. Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, 1947, the Payment of Bonus Act, 1965 and the Bidi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966.

The number of prosecutions and convictions under each Act in 1978 is given in the following statement:

Name of Act	Number of inspections	Number of prosecutions	Number of convictions	Amount fixed (in Rs)
The U. P. Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, 1947	1,15,483	31,197	15,338	6,90,950
The Bidi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966	1,177	223	123	6,295
The Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961	2,308	623	287	15,340
The U. P. (Industrial Establishment) National Holidays Act, 1961	1,038	72	10	2,110
The Payment of Wages Act, 1936	5,356	520	10	770
The Minimum Wages Act, 1948	49,021	8,968	4,189	3,07,406
The Payment of Bonus Act, 1965	4,220	242	18	7,230
The Industrial Employment (Standing Order), Act, 1946	2,878	48	9	870
The U. P. Maternity Benefits Act, 1938	415	2	—	—
The Employment of Children Act, 1938	138	6	—	—
The Indian Boilers Act, 1923	2,034	66	1	25

The amount of compensation which was paid from 1971 to 1975 under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 to the labourers or their dependents on being involved in accidents in the course of employment resulting in disablement or death is given below :

Year	Fatal cases		Disablement cases	
	Number of cases	Amount of compensation paid (in Rs)	Number of cases	Amount of compensation paid (in Rs)
1971	—	—	10	15,258
1972	—	—	4	10,829
1973	1	3,590	—	—
1974	—	—	—	—
1975	1	12,000	1	2,940

Trade Unions

The Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, provides for the registration of the associations or trade unions of the workers or employees engaged in industrial activity. It empowers the registrar of trade unions (whose headquarters are at Kanpur) to grant registration to such bodies and to scrutinise their working. The trade unions concern themselves with matters relating to the general interests of the workers, their service conditions, dismissal, discharge and other punishment cases.

The trade unions are corporate bodies which function in the interest of their members and aim at furthering good relations between employers and employees. They strive to improve the economic, moral and social conditions of labourers and ensure payment of fair wages, provision of healthy living and working conditions and proper medical and educational facilities to their children and members of their family.

The following statement gives the names, dates of registration and the number of members of the workers' unions which existed in the district in 1975 :

Name of trade unions	Date of registration	Total number of members
Ordnance Army Clothing Factory Workers Union, Shahjahanpur	12-10-'44	1,665
Carews Mazdoor Union, Rosa, Shahjahanpur	16-11-'47	632
Shahjahanpur Electric Supply Corporation Ltd, Mazdoor Union, Shahjahanpur	26-8-'48	94
Sweepers Union, Shahjahanpur	20-5-'48	250
Defence Employees Union, Shahjahanpur	10-12-'57	228
Tailors Union Ordnance Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpur	20-6-'58	188
Carews Distillery Shramik Union, Shahjahanpur	23-5-'64	77
Ordnance Factory Mazdoor Sangh, Shahjahanpur	1-7-'66	1,535
Pratiraksha Karamchhari Union Ordnance Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpur	22-12-'67	1,071
Suraksha Karamchhari Sangh, Shahjahanpur	28-3-'68	592
Defence Weavers Association Ordnance Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpur	6-3-'74	236
Bazar Karamchhari Union, Shahjahanpur	5-8-'75	92
Riksha Chalak Union, Shahjahanpur	30-9-'75	62

Old Age Pension

The old age pension scheme was introduced in the district in December 1957 to provide some measure of social security and financial help to the old destitutes having no relations bound by custom or usage to support them and who have income not more than Rs 30 per month and are above 60 years of age, if women, and above 65 years of age, if men. The amount of monthly pension to an individual was fixed at Rs 20 per month. It raised from Rs 20 to Rs 30 in 1972 and to Rs 40 per month from 1976. The benefits of this scheme are not available to beggars, mendicants and inmates of poor-houses. Initially the pension was sanctioned by the labour commissioner, Kanpur, but from September 1, 1975, it is being sanctioned by the district magistrate. The number of men and women getting benefits under the scheme in the district was 62 and 96 respectively in January 1978.

PROHIBITION

The district is not a dry area, yet steps have been taken to discourage the addicts from indulgence in intoxication. Prohibition

publicity and propaganda works are carried out by social workers as well as the prohibition department of the State. Wide and intensive prohibition propaganda is done by the local branch of the all-India prohibition committee, and the Madya Nishedh Pracharaks deputed in the district by the State prohibition department. They organise publicity programmes in the labour colonies, market places, fairs and educational institutions in the district through *bhajans*, *kirtans*, dramas and cinema shows, etc. Liquor shops have fixed opening and closing hours. The dry days observed are Holi, Dipavali, August 15 (Independence Day), October 2 (birthday of Mahatma Gandhi), January 26 (Republic Day) and January 30 (day of Mahatma Gandhi's martyrdom). The pay day, generally the first of every month and the 7th of every month have also been declared dry days.

ADVANCEMENT OF SCHEDULED CASTES, SCHEDULED TRIBES AND OTHER BACKWARD CLASSES

The Harijan Sahayak department was set up in 1950 at the State level to formulate and implement schemes for the welfare of people belonging to the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes, the Other Backward Classes and the Criminal Tribes rechristened as (Denotified Tribes). In 1956, a district Harijan welfare officer was posted in the district whose designation was changed to Harijan and social welfare officer in 1961, when the Harijan Sahayak and social welfare departments were merged. His main functions are to look after the interests of the members of these groups and to implement the schemes formulated by government for their welfare.

Members of the Scheduled Castes were considered to belong to the depressed classes during the British rule. Social workers tried to better their lot but the British government took little interest in their welfare. A half-hearted beginning was made in 1930, when a scheme was formulated for awarding stipends to students of the Scheduled Castes. It was only with the advent of the Independence that concrete steps were taken for the betterment of their lot.

The U. P. Removal of Social Disabilities Act, 1947 was passed which ensured to the members of these castes the unrestricted enjoyment of social and religious liberties. The Untouchability (Offences) Act, 1955, came into force in the State in June 1955. It is a Central Act and has rendered the practice of untouchability a punishable offence.

The government also threw open all avenues of employment to the members of the Scheduled Castes, and major steps have been taken for their adequate representation in public services.

In 1952, the upper age limit for the recruitment of the candidate of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to government services was relaxed up to two years and up to five years since 1955 over and above the prescribed age limit. In 1953, the percentage of reservation of seats for this group in government service was raised from 10 to 18. Government keeps a watch on the progress of recruitment of the candidates of these classes to various posts and emphasize that the prescribed percentage for filling up posts by such candidates must be maintained in all government offices.

In 1971, there were 2,09,629 persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and 1,455 persons belonging to the Scheduled Tribes in the district, comprising 16.2 and 0.1 per cent respectively of the total population.

In 1972, a government approved school and a welfare and observation home were established in the district. In 1977, 31 juvenile delinquents belonging to the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes were kept in the school and 8 of these were kept in the observation home. These people are given psychological treatment and full protection, and are provided with free fooding, lodging and educational facilities.

The government also provides grants and loans for the people of these classes for various purposes such as agriculture, industries, and construction of houses, and also grants scholarships and loans for the students of these classes. An amount of Rs 1,50,500 was given for constructing 43 houses and Rs 51,700 were disbursed for starting cottage industries in the district in 1977. Besides, Rs 1,000 were advanced for purchasing bulls and Rs 2,000 for constructing drinking water wells to the Harijans in that year.

Scholarships and stipends totalling Rs 2,66,038 by the Central and Rs 5,13,396 by the State governments were given to a total number of 3,880 Harijan students in the district in 1977.

There are a number of non-official organisations engaged in the upliftment and welfare of the Harijans in the district. The notable of these are the Dalit Varg Sangh, the Balmiki Sangh, the Safal Mazdoor Union, the Vimukta Jati Sangh, the Yuva Dalit Varg

Sangh and the Trade Union for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. There are also two hostels for the Harijan students—the Adarsh Chhatravas (Shahjahanpur) and the Mohan Harijan Chhatravas (Tilhar).

MUSLIM WAQFS (TRUSTS)

Shia Waqfs

There is only one notable Shia *waqf* in the district registered with the Shia central board of *waqfs*, U. P. Lucknow named after the Nawab Asif-ud-daula Bahadur. It carries on religious and charitable activities.

Sunni Waqfs

Pertinent details in respect of three important Sunni *waqfs* which are registered with the Sunni central board of *Waqfs*, Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow are given below :

Name of <i>Waqfs</i>	Date of Foundation	Name of Founder	Annual income (in Rs)	Objectives
M. Saeed Khan	27-11-1930	M. Saeed Khan	19,350.72	Religious and charitable
M. A. Wajid Khan	13-10-1906	M. A. Wajid Khan	8,140.00	Ditto.
Masjid Tareen Tikli	Not available	<i>Waqf</i> by user	5,040.00	Ditto.

Welfare of Ex-servicemen

For the welfare of ex-servicemen in the district there is the district soldiers' sailors' and airmen's board which was established in 1943 with 14,910 members. It functions under the control and supervision of the director, soldiers' welfare, U. P. The work of the board in the district is supervised by a secretary who is generally an ex-serviceman and a paid employee of the board. The Board provides facilities for ex-servicemen and their families and assists in their rehabilitation. The facilities include free education from the primary to the post-graduate stages to the children of the dead and disabled soldiers, concession in tuition fees from the primary to the high school classes to the children of serving personnel up to the rank of junior commissioned officer,

grant of stipend to school-going children, and free medical treatment in military hospitals for pensioners and their families. Besides, financial assistance is provided for handicapped and infirm ex-servicemen and the widows of deceased servicemen, monetary help is given for the marriage of the daughters of soldiers who die in action, land is allotted to the widows of deceased soldiers and disabled army men and seats are reserved for re-employment of ex-servicemen in the State and Central Government services and in private sector jobs.

The following statement gives the number of ex-servicemen and their dependents who received assistance and help through the board from 1973 to 1977 :



Year	Financial assistance		Allotment of agricultural land		Scholarships to students		Re-employment provided to ex-service-men (No.)	Distribution of sewing machines to the widows of ex-service-men
	No. of persons benefited	Amount distributed (in Rs)	No. of persons benefited	Area of land (in hectares)	No. of students	Amount distributed (in Rs)		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1973	28	3,440	33	55.25	60	4,345	11	7
1974	27	8,200	—	—	67	4,230	10	—
1975	7	3,400	12	32.00	130	7,110	8	11
1976	14	16,200	..	—	140	10,936	6	10
1977	32	7,320	37	74.75	90	4,130	26	—

Loan amounting to Rs 1,13,465 was given to ex-servicemen and their dependents for purposes like agricultural improvements and repairs of houses in 1977.

Awards for outstanding gallantry have also been given to the following servicemen belonging to the district :

Name of servicemen	Village and tahsil	National award	Year of award
Lt. Naik Yadunath Singh	Khajuri, Jalalabad	Param Vir Chakra	1947
Lt. Lance Naik Drigpal Singh	Naugawan, Jalalabad	Maha Vir Chakra	1971
Retd. Major Sardara Singh	Mahoba, Powayan	Vir Chakra	1947
Lt. Sepoy Narvir Singh	Hathel, Jalalabad	Ashoka Chakra	1947
Lt. Colonel Raghvendra Kumar	Nahil, Powayan	Vishist Sewa Medal	1971



CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL ORGANIZATIONS

REPRESENTATION OF DISTRICT IN LEGISLATURES

Vidhan Sabha (Legislative Assembly)

For the first general elections to the Vidhan Sabha in 1952, the district was divided into six constituencies, from which seven members in all were to be elected, one seat being reserved for Scheduled Castes candidate. The Congress won all the seats. Single-member constituencies were Shahjahanpur (west)-cum-Jalalabad (East), Jalalabad (West), Shahjahanpur (Central), Tilhar (North) and Tilhar (South) and double-member constituency was Powayan-cum-Shahjahanpur (East).

The total number of electors in the district was 5,51,200. Of these 2,33,924 electors exercised their right of franchise, the number of valid votes polled being 2,26,116 and invalid 7,808. Roughly the percentage of voting was forty-two. The statement given below highlights some of the important features of this election :

Party/Independents	Contestants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
1	2	3	4
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	1	—	2,938
Hindu Mahasabha	1	—	8,546
Indian National Congress	7	7	71,015
Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party	1	—	373
Ram Rajya Parishad	1	—	912
Scheduled Castes Federation	1	—	4,606
Socialist Party of India	7	—	36,872
Independents	34	—	1,00,854
Total	53	7	2,26,116

The constituencies were delimited afresh in 1956 with the formation of six constituencies viz. Shahjahanpur, Jamaur, Tilhar, Khera Bajhera and Jalalabad and one double-member constituency of Powayan with one seat reserved for the Scheduled Castes candidate.

In the second general elections of 1957, there were only 40 candidates in the field for the seven seats. The number of electors was 5,68,425, total votes polled numbered 3,27,469 and the number of invalid votes being 14,306. The percentage of polling was about fifty-five.

The following statement indicates the number of candidates put up, seats won and votes secured by each contesting party at the election for the Vidhan Sabha in 1957 :

Party/Independents	Contestants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	3	—	12,752
Indian National Congress	7	—	68,892
Praja Socialist Party	5	—	16,206
Independents	25	7	2,15,313
Total	40	7	3,13,163

The system of double-member constituencies was abolished for the 1962 general elections. The seven newly formed constituencies were those of Tilhar, Khera Bajhera, Jalalabad, Jamaur, Shahjahanpur, Powayan and Khutar. The Khutar constituency was reserved for the Scheduled Castes candidate. The number of electors was 5,80,476, valid votes polled numbered 2,39,178 and 12,519 votes were declared invalid. Nearly forty-three per cent votes were polled in the district. The results of this election were as under :

Party/Independents	Contestants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	6	—	23,196
Hindu Mahasabha	6	—	10,321
Indian National Congress	7	4	64,393
Praja Socialist Party	6	—	23,004
Republican Party of India	5	—	9,230
Socialist Party of India	6	—	24,440
Independents	20	3	84,594
Total	56	7	2,39,178

For the general elections held in 1967, the constituencies were delimited afresh and the newly formed constituencies were those of Powayan, Nigohi, Tilhar, Jalalabad, Dadraul and Shahjahanpur. The constituency of Powayan was reserved for Scheduled Castes candidate.

The total number of electors in the district was 6,25,615 of whom 2,98,439 cast their votes. The votes treated as invalid numbered 25,094. The percentage of votes polled in the district was about forty-eight.

The following statement shows the number of candidates put up, seats captured and votes secured by each contesting party or the independent candidates for the Vidhan Sabha elections of 1967 :

Party/Independents	Contestants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	6	1	47,579
Indian National Congress	6	4	59,910
Praja Socialist Party	2	1	14,101
Republican Party of India	6	—	20,697
Samyukta Socialist Party	6	—	27,709
Swatantra Party	6	—	23,834
Independents	35	—	79,515
Total	67	6	2,73,345

The Vidhan Sabha, constituted after the 1967 general elections, was dissolved on February 25, 1968 due to a large number of defections among the members which forced the government to submit its resignation. The State was then placed under President's rule. A mid-term poll was held after about a year in 1969. Out of 6,44,755 electors, 3,12,961 exercised their right of franchise. The number of invalid votes was 12,018. The percentage of polling was fifty. In all fifty-eight candidates belonging to ten different political parties (besides independents) contested for the six seats. The results were as follows :

Party/Independents	Contestants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	6	1	78,347
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	5	—	18,866
Hindu Mahasabha	2	—	3,066
Indian National Congress	6	5	97,429
Mazdoor Parishad	3	—	3,257
Praja Socialist Party	1	—	9,469
Proutist Block	1	—	673
Republican Party of India	4	—	9,567
Samyukta Socialist Party	6	—	40,806
Swatantra Party	3	—	9,484
Independents	21	—	29,979
Total	58	6	3,00,943

On October 2, 1970, the President's rule was again imposed, as the then chief minister of the Bhartiya Kranti Dal-Congress coalition refused to resign when the Congress withdrew its support to him. The President's rule was revoked on October 18, and the Samyukta Vidhayak Dal ministry was sworn in on October 18, 1970. The ministry did not last long and following its collapse on April 3, 1971 the Congress came to power immediately thereafter. Two years later, the chief minister, though commanding a comfortable majority in the Vidhan Sabha, submitted the resignation of his council of ministers to the Governor on June 12, 1973, clearing the way for

the President's rule again for the third time since Independence, in the State which ended in November, 1973, with the Congress taking office.

The next general elections held in February, 1974. The district was split into six constituencies viz. Powayan, Nigohi, Tilhar, Jalalabad, Dadraul and Shahjahanpur. The constituency of Powayan was reserved for the Scheduled Castes candidate. The number of electors was 7,38,540, total votes cast were 4,00,522, the number of valid votes polled being 3,88,811. The percentage of polling was nearly fifty-four.

The statement given below indicates the number of candidates, seats won, and valid votes secured by each contesting party at the elections of 1974 :

Party/Independents	Contestants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	5	2	65,284
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	6	1	59,989
Communist Party of India (Marxist)	1	—	3,199
Hindu Mahasabha	5	—	2,980
Indian National Congress	6	1	88,580
Indian National Congress (Organisation)	6	1	52,338
Loktantrik Sabha	1	—	619
Socialist Party	5	—	25,087
Swatantra Party	5	—	10,955
Independents	35	1	79,780
Total	75	6	3,88,811

In May 1977, the Vidhan Sabha was dissolved and mid-term polls were held after a month. The elections were contested mainly between three parties—the Indian National Congress, the Janta Party and the Republican Party (Khovergardhe). The Janta Party was formed as a result of merger of the Bhartiya Lok Dal, the Akhil Bhartiya Jan Sangh, the Indian National Congress (Organisation),

the Socialist Party and the Congress for Democracy, adopting the symbol of Bhartiya Lok Dal. The district was split into six constituencies of Powayan, Nigohi, Jalalabad, Dadraul, Tilhar and Shahjahanpur. The constituency of Powayan was reserved for the Scheduled Castes candidates. The number of electors was 7,78,706, total votes cast were 3,49,185, the number of valid votes polled being 3,44,136. The percentage of polling was about forty-five.

The statement given below indicates the number of candidates, seats won, and valid votes secured by each contesting party and the Independents at the elections of 1974 :

Party/Independents	Contestants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
Indian National Congress	6	2	99,167
Janta Party	6	2	1,21,937
Muslim League	1	—	191
Republican Party (Khovargardhe)	3	—	9,875
Independents	32	2	1,11,966
Total	48	6	3,44,136

Lok Sabha (House of the People)

For elections to the Lok Sabha (House of the People) in 1957, the district formed part of the Shahjahanpur double-member constituency with one seat reserved for the Scheduled Castes. The number of electors was 8,14,333, valid votes polled numbered 7,23,418 and 79,663 votes were declared invalid. The elections were contested by nine candidates belonging to the Congress, the Jan Sangh and the Praja Socialist parties and three Independents. Of the two seats, one went to the Congress and the other to an Independent candidate.

For the general elections of 1962, the district was constituted into a single-member constituency of the same name and it was reserved for the Scheduled Castes candidate. The number of electors was 4,17,272, out of which 1,72,653 cast their votes. Invalid votes numbered 6,207. Five candidates contested the elections and the seat went to an Independent candidate.

For the general elections of 1967, the constituency of Shahjahanpur remained unchanged. The election was contested by twelve

candidates of different parties including seven Independents. There were 5,15,295 electors out of which 2,57,201 cast their votes, the number of invalid votes being 17,655. The seat was secured by a candidate of the Congress Party.

On account of rift in the Indian National Congress in 1969, the Lok Sabha constituted after the general elections of 1967 was dissolved on December 27, 1970 and fresh polls were ordered. The mid-term Lok Sabha elections were held in 1971 and the new Lok Sabha was constituted in March the same year. The constituency remained the same. The number of electors was 5,42,094, out of which 2,57,537 cast their votes. The number of invalid votes was 5,994. The reserved seat went to the Congress (J)* candidate.

For the general elections of 1977, the constituency of Shahjahanpur remained unchanged. The election was contested mainly by the two parties the Indian National Congress (R) and the Bhartiya Lok Dal. The number of electors was 6,39,675, out of which 3,62,713 cast their votes. The number of invalid votes was 6,782. The seat went to the Bhartiya Lok Dal candidate.

The statement below gives some relevant details of the elections to the Lok Sabha held in the district from 1957 to 1977 :

*Indian National Congress presided over by Sri Jagjivan Ram later rechristened as Indian National Congress (R).

party/Independents	1957			1962			1967			1971			1977		
	Contes- tants	Seats won	Valid votes polled	Contes- tants	Seats won	Valid votes polled	Contes- tants	Seats won	Valid votes polled	Contes- tants	Seats won	Valid votes polled	Contes- tants	Seats won	Valid votes polled
Bhartiya Jan Sangh	2	—	82,382	1	—	17,458	1	—	35,342	1	—	81,259	—	—	—
Bhartiya Kranti Dal	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	2,419	—	—	—
Bhartiya Lok Dal	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	2,42,026
Hindu Mahasabha	—	—	—	1	—	20,108	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indian National Congress (N)*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	24,915	—	—	—
Indian National Congress or Indian National Congress (R)**	2	1	2,14,106	1	—	48,458	1	1	40,031	1	1	1,03,183	1	—	86,
Preja Socialist Party	2	—	1,28,434	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Republican Party	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	21,658	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sanyukta Socialist Party	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	17,998	1	—	21,563	—	—	—
Socialist Party of India.	—	—	—	1	—	13,969	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Swatantra Party	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	17,900	—	—	—	—	—	—
Independents	3	1	2,98,496	1	1	66,433	7	—	1,96,617	5	—	18,204	3	—	27,303
Total	9	2	7,23,418	5	1	1,66,446	12	1	2,39,546	10	1	2,51,543	5	1	3,55,931

*Ruling

**Indian National Congress presided over by Sri Nijalingappa, later rechristened as Congress (Organisation)

Political Parties and Organisation

The various political parties in the district function as units of their national political organisations, none being of purely local character. The numerical strength of the membership of these parties varies from time to time. Till the general elections held in 1967, the main political parties in the district were the Indian National Congress, the Bhartiya Jan Sangh and the Praja Socialist. The position underwent a change in 1969 with the split of the Congress into two separate Congress groups popularly known as Indian National Congress (Ruling) and Indian National Congress (Organisation). In the general elections of 1977, a new political party was formed known as the Janta Party, the constituents of the Janta Party being the Bhartiya Jan Sangh, the Bhartiya Lok Dal, the Socialist Party, the Congress (Organisation) and the Congress for Democracy.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

Local Publications

The publication of newspapers and periodicals was started in the district in the 19th Century. A monthly journal in Urdu and Hindi called the *Arya Darpan* was started in 1880, but died out after a few years. It dealt with social and religious matters in general, and expressed the views of the Arya Samaj in particular. An Urdu fortnightly called the *Anjuman* was first published in 1869, but after a long career dropped out of existence some few years ago. In the year 1972 the following newspapers and periodicals were published from the district :

Name of newspapers/magazines	Year of commencement	Periodicity	Number of copies in circulation
Hindi :			
<i>Anand Kutir</i>	1970	Weekly	2,000
<i>Parmarth</i>	1950	Monthly	4,182
Bilingual :			
<i>Shahjahanpur Saptahik</i>	1950	Weekly	412

Other Periodicals

The popular dailies, weeklies and monthlies which are published outside the district and have circulation in the district are listed below

Daily	Weekly	For nightly	Monthl
Hindi :			
<i>Aaj</i>	<i>Dharmyug</i>	<i>Champak</i>	<i>Chandamama</i>
<i>Amrit Prabhat</i>	<i>Maya Puri</i>	<i>Madhuri</i>	<i>Grah Sobha</i>
<i>Hindustan</i>	<i>Ravivar</i>	<i>Manorama</i>	<i>Kadambini</i>
<i>Nav Bharat Times</i>	<i>Saptahik Hindustan</i>	<i>Mukta</i>	<i>Lot Pot</i>
<i>Navjeevan</i>		<i>Sarita</i>	<i>Manohar Kaha-niyan</i>
<i>Swatantra Bharat</i>			<i>Maya N. vneet Niharika Parag</i>
English :			
<i>Indian Express</i>	<i>Blitz</i>	<i>Caravan</i>	<i>Cine Blitz</i>
<i>National Herald</i>	<i>Screen</i>	<i>Champak</i>	<i>Mirror</i>
<i>Northern India Patrika</i>	<i>ports</i>	<i>Femina</i>	<i>Imprint</i>
<i>The Hindustan Times</i>	<i>Illustrated Weekly of India</i>	<i>Filmfare</i>	<i>Reader's Digest</i>
<i>The Pioneer</i>	<i>Week End</i>	<i>India Today</i>	<i>Star Dust</i>
<i>The Statesman</i>		<i>Star and Style</i>	
<i>The Times of India</i>		<i>Women's Era</i>	
Urdu :			
<i>Milap</i>	—	—	<i>Biswin Sadi</i>
<i>Qaumi Awaz</i>	—	—	<i>Shama</i>

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATION

The humanitarian urge among the people to organise voluntary associations or to participate in them to serve some social purpose is noticeable everywhere since the dawn of civilisation. With the advent of the British rule and the western system of education in the country, missionary institutions were set up, which gave rise to numerous parallel religious, cultural and social organisations, besides the establishment of hospitals, and educational institutions, both technical and general. After the achievement of Independence in

1947, the government has taken active interest in the organisation and proper functioning of the voluntary cultural and social service organisations.

Though voluntary organisations are free to undertake any welfare scheme, the government ensures that their activities are in harmony with the objectives and policies of the State. This is ensured by providing financial assistance to these organisations and periodical checks and reviews of their performance and working.

There are a number of such social service organisations engaged in the welfare of children, women, youth, destitutes, the handicapped and the Harijans in the district. A brief account of some of the more important ones is given below :

The Shahjahanpur branch of the U. P. Backward Classes Federation which has its headquarters at Lucknow endeavours for the upliftment of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes and the removal of untouchability and other social evils existing in the society.

The Madhya Uttar Pradesh Harijan Sewak Sangh with headquarters at Kalpi in Jalaun district is running a branch in Shahjahanpur. Its activities in the district include removal of untouchability, prohibition and economic development of the members of the Scheduled Castes and Other Backward Classes.

The Uttar Pradesh Rajya Samaj Kalyan Salahakar Board, Lucknow, has a branch at Tilbar in Shahjahanpur, and runs condensed education courses for women in the rural areas and trains them for the senior Basic and high school examinations. Women working in the development blocks are offered training in arts and crafts and cottage industries.

Srimad Dayanand Anathabaiya, was established in June 1924, in Kachcha Katra at Shahjahanpur. It brings up orphan children and gives them primary education. The institution is managed by a committee of members. The monetary help to the institution is provided by the local municipal board, the Zila Parishad and the State government.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Gola Raipur (pargana and tahsil Powayan)

Gola Raipur, a small village, lies in Lat. 28°2'N., and Long. 79°59'E., on the right bank of the Khanaut about 15 km. south-west of Powayan and 16 km. north-east of Shahjahanpur. There are two inhabited sites, both situated on the high ground above the river, the hamlet to the south being known as Raipur.

In ancient days it was a town and was the seat of the Katchrias. Later it became the headquarters of a large province known as Kanto Gola. The place is famous for its ancient remains. To the south of Gola lies a lofty *khera* (mound) covered with large bricks and fragments of blue and green glazed pottery, where ancient coins have been found occasionally. The ruins of a mud fort, comparatively of recent date, are found on the edge of the village. The place has been tentatively identified with the Hi-lo of Fa Hian, but the site has never been explored, and conclusive evidence of the existence of the great monastery mentioned by the Chinese traveller has not yet been obtained.

The village had a population of 1,177 and an area of 612 ha. in 1971.

Jalalabad (pargana and tahsil Jalalabad)

Jalalabad, the headquarters of the pargana and the tahsil of the same name, lies in Lat. 27°43'N., and Long 79°40'E., at a distance of 32 km. south-west of Shahjahanpur. It occupies the angle between the roads from Shahjahanpur and Katra, which unite about a kilometre to the south and continue along the left bank of the Ramganga to Farrukhabad. From the junction of these roads, a road leads to Budaun crossing the Ramganga river.

Jalalabad is an old Pathan settlement, said to have been founded by Jalaluddin Firoz Khalji, though it may have equally well derived its name from Jalaluddin Mohammad Akbar. There is an old fort

in the town which is attributed to Hafiz Rahmat Khan, but in all probability it is much older. According to local traditions the site was in early days occupied by a fort belonging to the Bachhils, who made it over to the Chandels. It is certain, however, that Hafiz Rahmat Khan enlarged and rebuilt it in 1766. Its walls were once about seven and a half metres high, but are now in a ruinous condition. The town was in the past a flourishing trade centre, its situation giving it a unique advantage. But the opening of the railways at a considerable distance from the place adversely affected its past importance.

The town is administered as a municipality and had a population of 11,101 and covered an area of 3.08 sq. km. in 1971. The tahsil buildings, the registration office and the police-station are located on the site of the old fort, which is the highest spot in the town and stands towards the south, commanding the Bareilly road. The town also contains a post and telegraph office, a hospital, a family welfare centre, a veterinary hospital, 4 junior Basic schools, 2 senior Basic schools and 3 higher secondary schools. Staying facilities are available in an inspection house maintained by the public works department and a dharmshala. There are several mosques and temples in the town, but none of these possesses any architectural or historical value, the chief being the temple of Parashuram. Markets are held here on Mondays and Thursdays. Fairs are held on the full moon day of Kartika and Dasahra (Jyaistha) at Dhaighat situated in the vicinity of the town on the bank of the Ramganga. Jalalabad has 8 rice mills, 3 edible oil mills and a number of *khandsari* units.

Jalalabad is also the head quarters of a development block of the same name.

Jalalpur (pargana Jalalpur, tahsil Tilhar)

Jalalpur, the headquarters of the pargana of the same name, lies in Lat. 28°9'N. and Long. 75°42'E., on the road from Khudaganj to Faridpur (in district Bareilly) about 24 km. from Tilhar and 43 km. from Shahjahanpur. The village owes its origin to Jalal Khan, one of the Rohillas who made it the headquarters of the new pargana formed out of the old Tappa of Bareilly named after Charkhaura, a village some 5 km. to the north.

The village had an area of 238 ha. and a population of 1,472 in 1971.

Kant (pargana Kant, tahsil Shahjahanpur)

Kant, also known as Kantumont, is the headquarters of the pargana of the same name and lies in Lat. 27°48'N., and Long 79°48'E., on the Shahjahanpur-Jalalabad road, about 16 km. south-west of Shahjahanpur. The place is built on the high ground above the valley of the Garai, which flows at some distance to the east. For a long time it was the residence of the Muslim governor of a province known as Kant-O-Gola and the site of his fort is shown in a large mound. The decay of the place was chiefly due to the rise of Shahjahanpur, but there are still many traces of old masonry houses, mosques and tombs to attest its former importance. One of the mosques, now in a ruined condition, bears an inscription dated 1609.

The place had a population of 7,262 and an area of 637 ha. in 1971 and is administered as a town area. It contains a police-station, a post-office, a cattle-pound, 3 junior Basic schools, 2 senior Basic schools and a higher secondary school. There are 7 temples, 9 mosques and a tomb. The town is electrified and markets are held here on Mondays, Tuesdays, Fridays and Saturdays. Three fairs are held here annually, one on the occasion of Dasahra in the month of Asvina, the second on the occasion of Id-ul-Fitr on 1st of Shawwal, and the last one, which is held on 10th day of the second half of Chaitra and the last day of the first fortnight of every month is attributed to goddess Sheetla Devi.

Katra (pargana Katra, tahsil Tilhar)

Katra, a large village lies in Lat. 28°1'N., and Long. 79°40'E., on the road from Shahjahanpur to Bareilly about 10 km. north-west of Tilhar and 30 km. north-west of Shahjahanpur. During the reign of Aurangzeb, Kamalzai Khan, the son of Muzaffar Khan, founded the place on the ruins of Miranpur. The place became the headquarters of a pargana, and it rose to prominence when in 1774 Hafiz Bahmat Khan was defeated and slain by the combined forces of Avadh Wazir and the British, and his troops were driven in confusion from Katra to Fatehganj.

A considerable trade in grain and other articles is carried on at Katra, the market being held on Sundays and Thursdays. The place possesses a higher secondary school and a junior Basic school. Katra had a population of 10,234 and an area of 855 ha. in 1971.

Khutar (pargana Khutar, tahsil Powayan)

Khutar, a large village, lies in Lat. $28^{\circ}12'N.$, and Long. $80^{\circ}16'E.$, on the Shahjahanpur—Mailani road about 23 km. north-east of Powayan and 50 km. north-east of Shahjahanpur.

The place is an old settlement. For a long period it was the headquarters of a sub tahsil, but this arrangement came to an end in 1871 and the place was made the headquarters of a pargana and it continues to be so at present. It is also the headquarters of a development block of the same name.

The village had a population of 2,170 and an area of 528 ha. in 1971. It possesses a post and telegraph office, a cattle pound, a number of temples, two mosques and an intermediate college. Khutar has recently been raised to the status of a town area.

Mati (pargana Khutar, tahsil Powayan)

Mati, a small village, lies in Lat. $28^{\circ}24'N.$, and Long. $80^{\circ}17'E.$, about 67 km. from Shahjahanpur. The place is noteworthy as one of the few ancient sites in the district. Its antiquity is proved by the discovery from time to time of old coins, going back to the earliest punch-marked types of silver and copper and continuing in an almost unbroken succession through the periods of Buddhist, Indo-Scythian and early Muslim rule. Of its history nothing is known, though the old remains are locally attributed either to the mysterious Raja Ben or to the Bachhils, and coins of the ancient Mitra kings of Ahichhatra have also been found. In the days of the Delhi Sultans the place gave its name to one of the component *tappas* of the old Gola pargana, but it does not appear to have had any further importance. The ruins are very extensive, covering an area of about 3 km. long and some $1\frac{1}{2}$ km. broad, and everywhere are to be seen large bricks, on some of which are inscriptions dating as far back as eighth century. The place was greatly damaged by railways construction in search of ballast and by the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages, who demolished many old structures for the sake of the materials. The city appears to have had an outer wall surrounded by a ditch, and within was a second wall enclosing the citadel, where several fine and old octagonal wells are still in existence. To the north-west is a vast tank, some 1600 m. in length and 350 m. broad, now much overgrown with jungle and weeds. On all sides are masonry ghats with flights of brick steps leading down the tank. On the north, south and west banks are heaps of rubbish, the remains of large brick buildings, while

on the east can be traced the outline of a grand square temple with a lingam. Another ruined temple with an immense lingam of great antiquity is to be seen in the adjoining village of Mahadewa to the south, while in a small modern temple built on a mound to the north-east of the city is an ancient statue of Kali, from the existence of which it has been conjectured that the place was originally called Matripura. A copper-plate is said to have been discovered here in 1871, but unfortunately all traces of it had been lost.

The place closely resembles some of the jungle towns which are common in Purnapur and other parts of the submontane tract, and similar ruins are to be seen by the side of a large tank at Dhanega, a small village some 6 km. to the south-east. The present village of Mati, also known as Mati Maji, has a population of 226 and an area of 252 ha. in 1971.

Nigohi (pargana Nigohi, tahsil Tilhar)

Nigohi lies in Lat. 28°6'N., and Long. 79°52'E., on the road from Shahjahanpur to Pilibhit, at a distance of some 23 km. north of the former. Branch roads lead from the place to Powayan on the east and to Tilhar on the south-west. Though nothing is known of its history, the antiquity of Nigohi is proved by the existence of several large *khera* (mounds) of different shapes and sizes, all round the present village site. There are also a number of old wells of different sizes and patterns, many of which are still in use. The mounds are covered with bricks, but popular superstition forbids their removal. Legend relates that in days gone by, the place was occupied for a short time by the Muslims, to whom the construction of forts, houses and wells is attributed; but there is no certain knowledge of the date at which such a settlement took place, and the site would probably prove fruitful to the explorer. The village owes its name to one of the constituent *tappas* of the old Gola pargana till the days of the Rohillas, who formed a new pargana with Nigohi as its headquarters.

Nigohi had a population of 3,361 and an area of 412 ha. in 1971.

Powayan (pargana and tahsil Powayan)

The town of Powayan lies in Lat. 28°4'N., and Long. 80°6'E., at a distance of 27 km. north-east of Shahjahanpur with which it is connected by a metalled road. Other roads lead from the town of Nigohi on the west, to Bisalpur (in district Pilibhit) on the north-

west, to Puranpur (in district Pilibhit) on the north, to Khutar on the north-east and to Mohamdi (in district Kheri) on the south-east.

Powayan is said to have been founded at the beginning of the 18th century by Udai Singh, a local Gaur Raja. Its growth was hampered by heavy exaction by the Rajas from any one who built, enlarged, altered or sold a house, amounting in some cases to one-fourth of the value of the property. Its rise, however, became inevitable when it was made the headquarters of a tahsil, but later the place again declined owing partly to the reputed unhealthiness of the climate and also because of diversion of trade to other places more favourably situated. The raja of Powayan took an active part in the freedom struggle of 1857 after which the tahsil building, which was originally located in the town, was removed to a new site at the junction of the roads from Shahjahanpur, Bisalpur and Puranpur, where new buildings of courts and offices were erected within a square enclosure with high walls loopholed for purposes of defence.

Powayan had an area of 0·8 sq. km. and a population of 8,933 in 1971. Markets are held here twice a week where articles of daily use are brought for sale. A fair is held on the occasion of Dasahra and the other on Ram Navami. The place, which is being administered as a town area, possesses a post, telegraph and telephone office, a hospital, a family planning centre, three higher secondary schools, two senior Basic schools and four junior Basic schools.

Rosa (pargana and tahsil Shahjahanpur)

Rosa lies in Lat. 27°49'N., and Long. 79°55'E., on the Bareilly-Sitapur road, 5 km. south-east of the district headquarters with which it is connected by road and railway. The town is an important railway junction where the Lucknow-Shahjahanpur and the Shahjahanpur-Sitapur lines of Northern Railway meet.

The name Rosa is a corruption of Rausar, the name of a small village on the banks of the Khanaut, just above its junction with the Garra. The town is an important railway settlement and is administered as a notified area. It had a population of 5,086 and covered an area of 2·12 sq. km. in 1971. The place possesses 5 junior Basic schools, 3 senior Basic schools, a higher secondary school, a hospital, a dispensary, a family welfare centre and a post and telegraph office. Markets are held here on Wednesdays and Sundays. A fair is held here annually on the occasion of Dasahra.

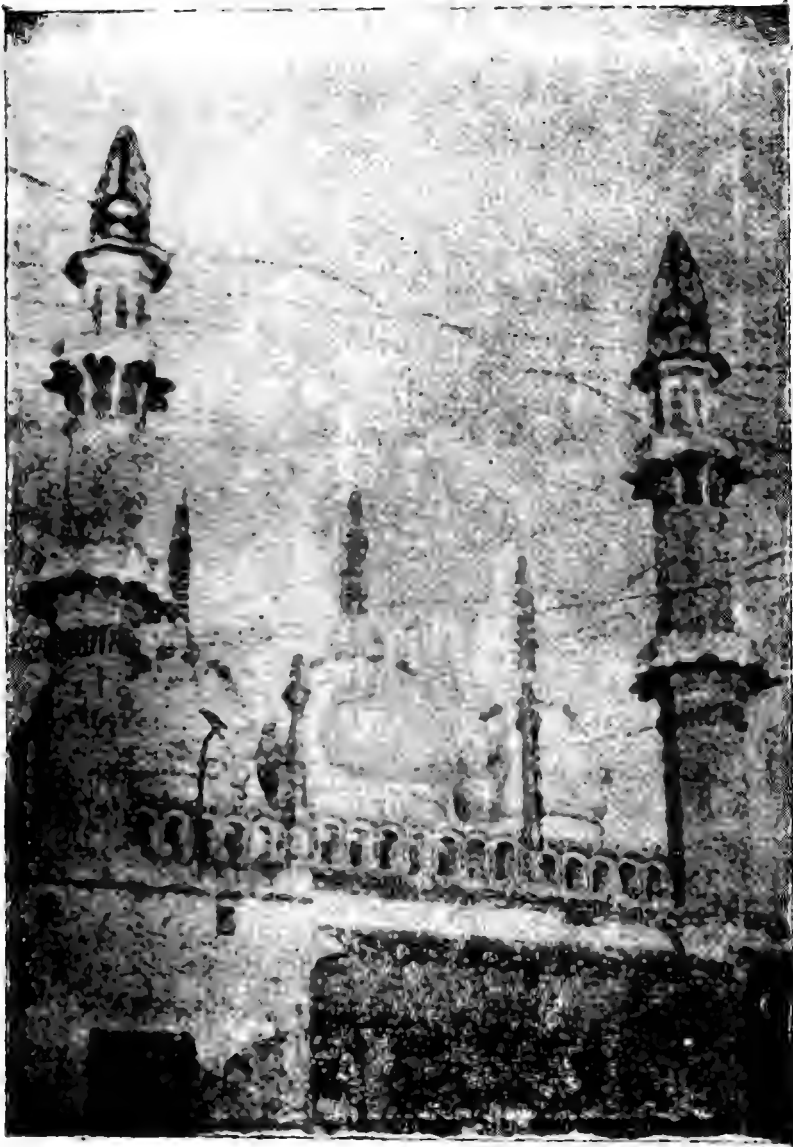
Shahjahanpur (pargana and tahsil Shahjahanpur)

Shahjahanpur, the district headquarters, lies in Lat. 27°53'N., and Long. 79°54'E., at a distance of 75 km. by road from Bareilly, 48 km. from Sitapur and 74 km. from Fatehgarh. The town was founded in the reign of Shahjahan by Bahadur Khan, the jaghirdar of Kannauj, who named it in honour of the emperor. The town was built on the high ground between the Garra and the Khanaut, the two rivers gradually approaching one another and uniting beyond the southern limits of the town. The Khanaut forms the eastern boundary of the town, but in the south-east there is a populous block of outlying locality on the bank of the river. The Khanaut is marked by the ridge on which the old Rohilla fort stood, as tradition goes, on the site of a Gujar stronghold in the extreme south of the town. The fort described as a castle by Heber, has wholly disappeared, though its circuit can still be traced. It was razed to the ground after the freedom struggle of 1857. Nearly is located Bistratghat where a number of ancient idols and statue have been found. The mosque of Bahadur Khan, standing within the Kotwali enclosure, is the oldest building of a plain and unpretentious structure bearing a Persian inscription dated 1057 H. (1647 A. D.). Bahadur Khan's tomb is still in existence, though somewhat out of repair. There are several other tombs in and about the town, notably that of Ahmad Ali Khan on the Rosa road. One of the best known mosques is in the south-west near Rajghat, and gives its name to the locality of Masjidganj, while another deserving mention is the Sunahari mosque near the tahsil.

The old temples in the town are those dedicated to Chaukasi Nath and Phoolmati Devi located in the locality of Khalil. A temple dedicated to Vishwanath has recently been constructed in Sadar Bazar. A Sikh *gurdwara* is located in Khirni Bagh.

The town which is being administered as a municipality had an area of 11.37 sq. km. and a population of 1,35,604 in 1971.

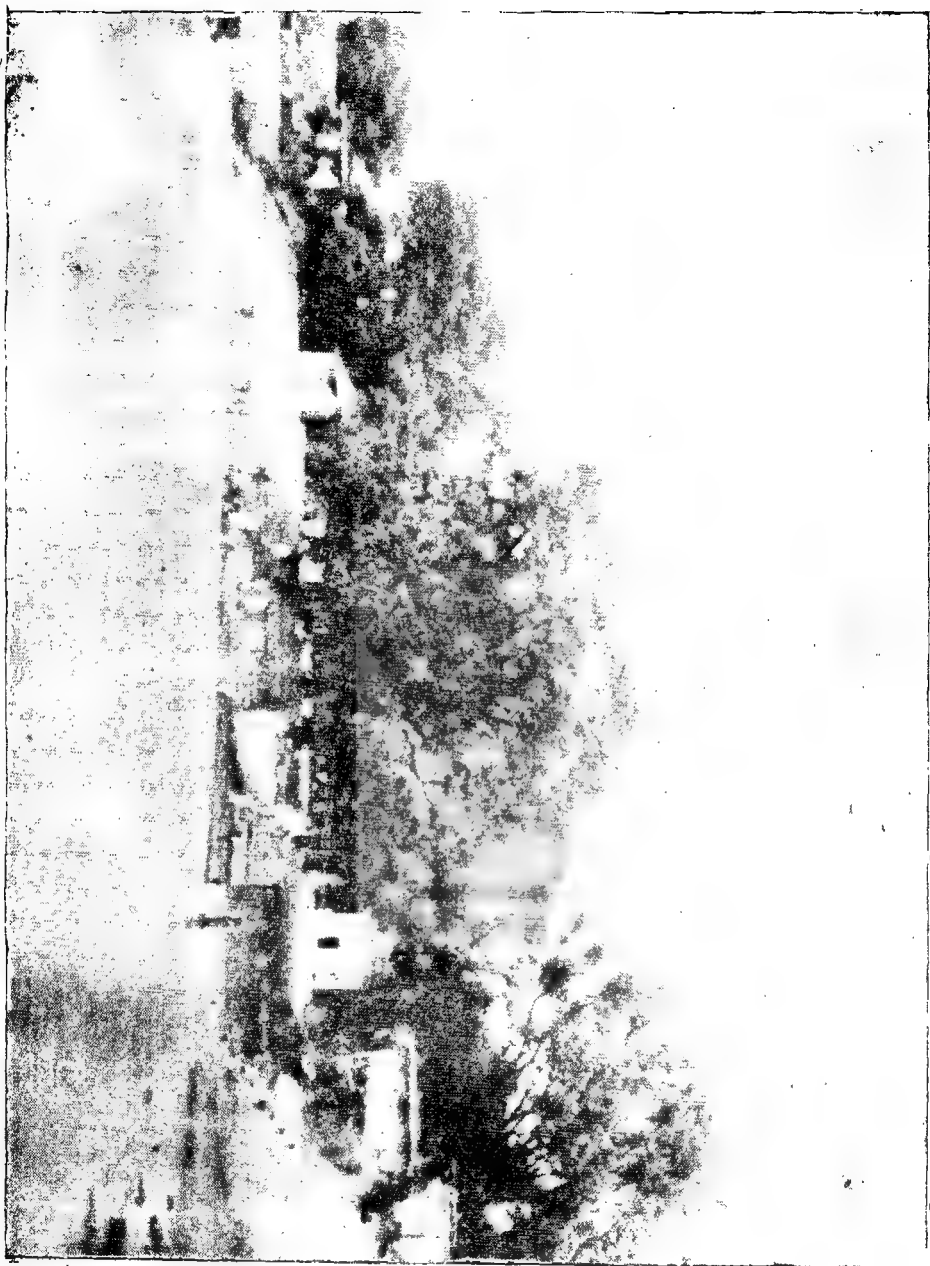
Among the educational institutions of the town the chief are the Swami Shukhdevanand Degree College (Mumuksha Ashram), Gandhi Faizam Degree College, the Arya Mahila Vidyalaya, the government intermediate college, the Mission girls school, the Arya Kanya Pathshala intermediate college, the Islamia intermediate college, the national girls intermediate college, the B. T. C. girls school, the Mission (Abbie Rich) intermediate college, the government girls intermediate college and the government normal school. There



Sunthari Mosque



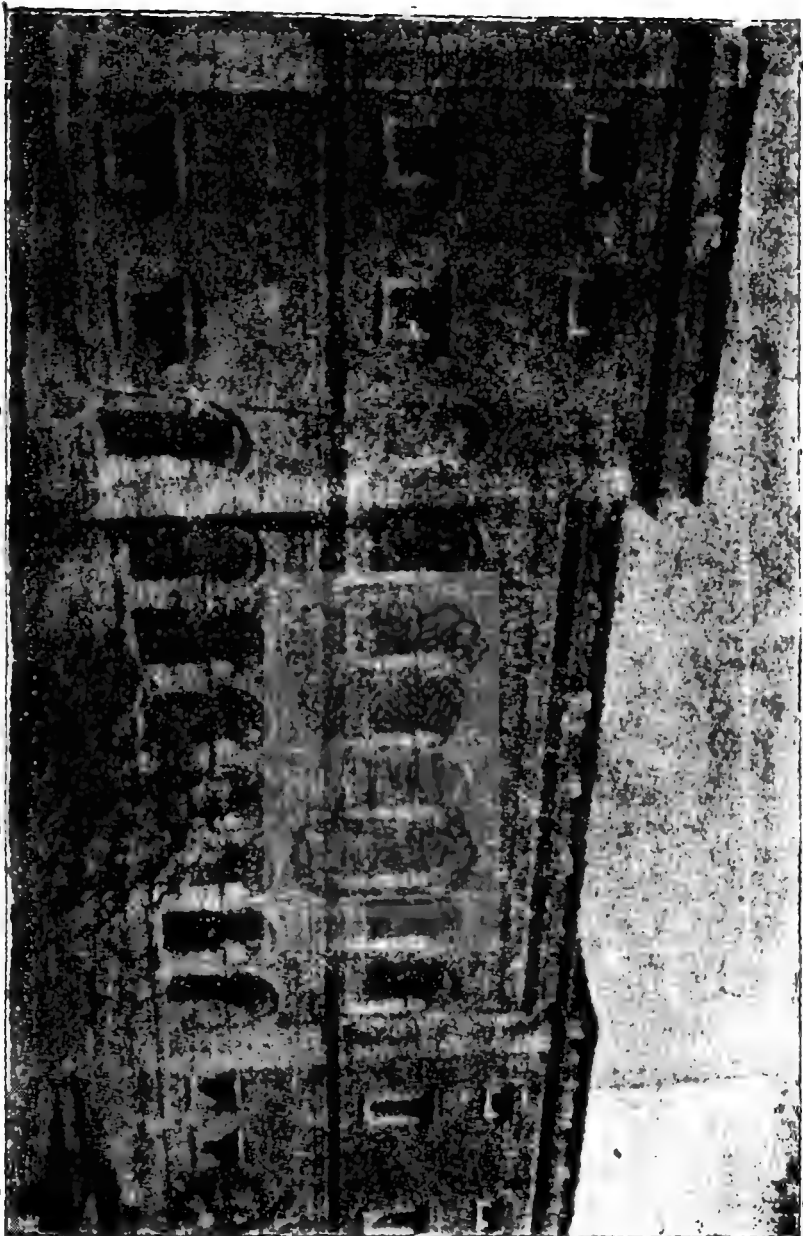
Tomb of Ahmad Ali Khan



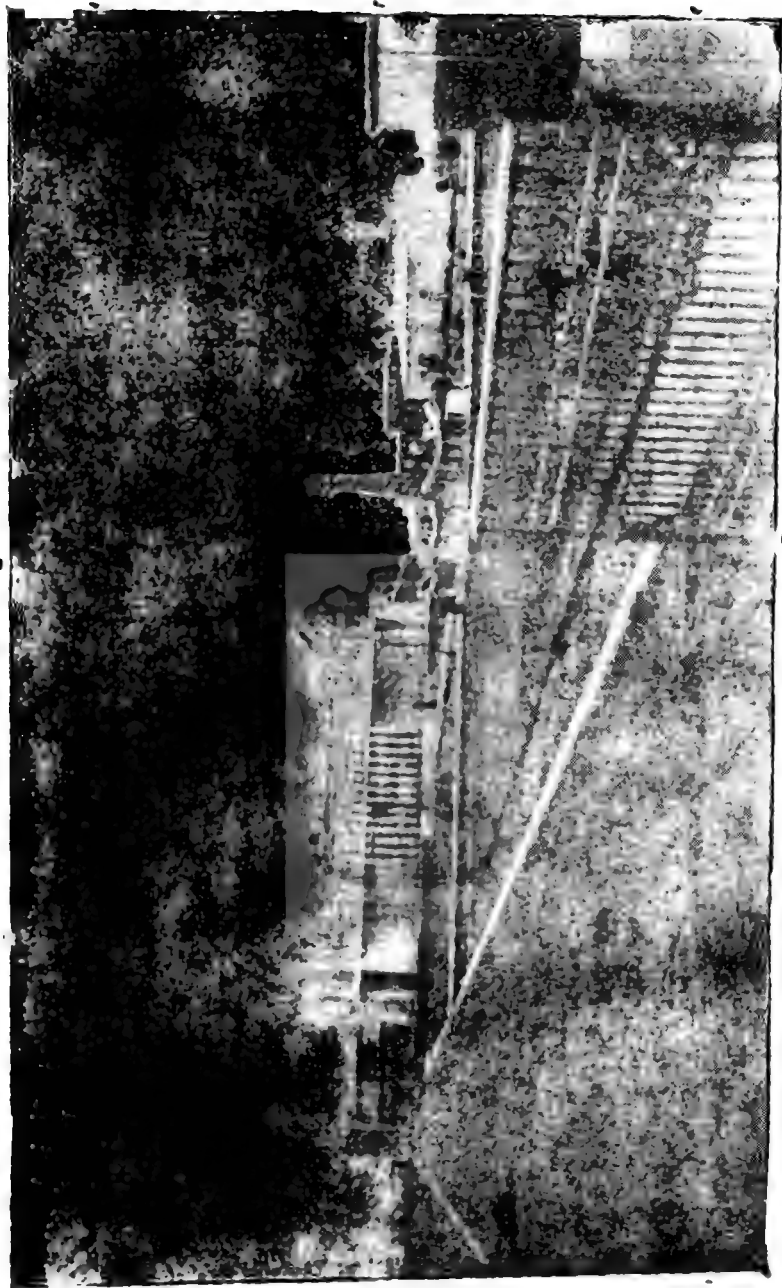
Biseratghat



Collection of ancient idols near Bisratghat



The Mission (Abbie Rich) Intermediate College



Headquarters building of Ramchandra Mission



Subhas Clock Tower

are a district hospital and an eye hospital (run by Sitapur eye hospital) in the town.

Shahjahanpur is served by the Northern and the North-Eastern Railways, the former running through the Northern part of the town and the latter traverses through the western and south-eastern part of the district.

The collectorate, judges' courts and all other district level offices are located in the northern part of the town. In the centre of the town there is a clock tower, named after Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose. The branches of the State Bank, Allahabad Bank, Union Bank, Bank of Baroda, Bank of India and Bareilly Corporation Bank are located in the town. The headquarters of Ramchandra Mission, an internationally renowned centre of yoga and culture, established in 1945 in the town, attracts visitors from all over the world.

Tilhar (pargana and tahsil Tilhar)

The town of Tilhar lies in Lat. 27°57'N, and Long. 79°44'E., on the main road from Shahjahanpur to Bareilly, some 19 km. distant from the former. The name is said to be derived from Tilok Chand, a Bachhil Rajput, who lived during the days of Akbar. The portion known as Umarpur was founded by a Yusufzai Pathan named Muhammad Umar Khan, the father of Mangal Khan, who rose to be *nazim* under Hafiz Rahmat Khan. Muhammad Umar Khan lost his life at the battle of Katra in 1774. Mangal Khan built a large fort and residence close to the Bareilly road in Mansurpur, on the outskirts of the town. The building covered an extensive area, enclosed within a high brick wall. It remained in the possession of Mangal Khan's descendants till the freedom struggle of 1857, when it was confiscated.

The town which is being administered as a municipality, had an area of 3.47 sq. km. and a population of 26,837 in 1971. The town is electrified and possesses two hospitals, a family planning centre, four higher secondary schools, a senior Basic school, sixteen junior Basic schools and a post and telegraph office. Sugar-cane, rice and *gur* (jaggery) constitute the chief exports from the town, while cloth, salt and kerosene oil are the main imports.



CONVERSION FACTORS

Money

- 1 pie=0.52 naya paise
- 1 pice=1.56 naya paise

Linear Measure

- 1 inch=2.54 centimetres
- 1 foot=30.48 centimetres
- 1 yard=91.44 centimetres
- 1 mile=1.61 kilometres

Square Measure

- 1 square foot=0.093 square metre
- 1 square yard=0.836 square metre
- 1 square mile=2.59 square kilometres=259 hectares
- 1 acre=0.405 hectare

Cubic Measure

- 1 cubic foot=0.028 cubic metre

Measure of Capacity

- 1 gallon (Imperial)=4.55 litres
- 1 seer*=0.937 litre

Measure of weight

- 1 tola=11.66 grams
- 1 chatak=58.32 grams
- 1 seer* (80 tolas)=933.11 grams
- 1 maund*=37.32 kilograms
- 1 ounce (Avoirdupois)=28.35 grams
- 1 pound (Avoirdupois)=453.59 grams
- 1 hundredweight=50.80 kilograms
- 1 ton=1,016.05 kilograms=1.1016 metric tonnes

Thermometer Scales

- Fahrenheit=9/50 Centigrade + 32

*As defined in Indian Standards Weight Act, 1939



GLOSSARY

Achakan—Type of knee-length coat

Ayas—Untrained midwives

Ban—Twine made of *moonj*

Bhajan—Devotional song

Bhakti—Devotion (for God)

Chuna—Building material

Churidar—Tight fitting pyjama

Dari—A type of carpet

Dupatta—Long scarf for head and shoulders

Gaon Sabha—Village assembly

Garara—Very full, long divided skirt

Garha—A type of coarse cloth

Gazi—A type of coarse cloth

Gotra—Exponymous group descended from a common ancestor in the male line of descent

Gur—Jaggery

Imambara—Building for performance of religious ceremonies of a Muslim sect

Jali—Grill.

Kathas—Recitation of mythological or religious stories

Kavi-sammelan—Symposium poets (Hindi)

Khandsari—Indigenous white sugar

Kharif—Early winter harvest.

Khutbah—Mohammedan prayer and sermon delivered in the mosques on Fridays

Kirtan—Recitation of names and attributes of Hindu deities

Moonj—(*Saccharum munja*)—a kind of long reed of which ropes etc., are made

Munsifs—Subordinate judge

Natak—Drama

Niwaz—Thick, wide, cotton tape.

Nyaya—Justice

Panchas—A committee of five persons

Rab—Molasses, drainings of raw sugar

Rabi—Winter crop or spring harvest

Sahayak Sarpanch—Assistant presiding officer

Sapinda—Literally having the same pinda or funeral cake; an agnate within seven generations

Sarpanch—Presiding officer

Surkhi—A building material



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